The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1887.

The Week.

THE Baltimore and Ohio "deal," or one of the many that have been agitating financial circles for months, has been authoritatively announced. Upon the face of it it is a plan to furnish $10,000,000 of new capital "for the purpose of paying off the entire floating debts of the company and placing it upon a sound financial basis." This is a task which engages the efforts of four of the strongest banking-houses in the world, and has for its object the relief of a company which publishes a "surplus" of $48,047,461. If the surplus were twice as large, probably twice the number of banking-houses would have been needed to "syndicate" it to a "sound financial basis." Such a surplus is evidently a dust-bin. Instead of being a reserve to fall back on in hard times, it is rather a burden to be removed, having in this respect a striking resemblance to the $2,600,000 surplus of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton. The banking-houses agreed to perform the last offices of respect and affection for this surplus on certain wise conditions. The principal one is, "that satisfactory contracts shall be made between the Baltimore and Ohio and the other roads for New York business, which shall remove all antagonism between them on the subject, and insure the permanent working of the Baltimore and Ohio in entire harmony with the other trunk lines, and also avoid construction or threat of construction of extensive parallel lines north and east of Philadelphia."

In order that these proposed contracts may be effectually guaranteed, they require "that the management of the company shall be placed in competent hands, satisfactory to the syndicate." Competent hands! There is a great deal of significance in these two words. They imply that the hands now controlling the Baltimore and Ohio are not competent, and this is manifest upon the face of things. If any testimony were needed upon this point additional to the carting away of the $48,000,000 surplus, it might be found in Mr. Garrett's recent negotiation for the transfer of the Baltimore and Ohio property to an impecunious scamp of the name of Ives, on a pledge of overissued stock of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Company, of the fraudulent character of which Mr. Garrett was notified either at the time he took it or very soon afterwards. Certainly, more competent hands are needed in the management of the Baltimore and Ohio property, and more competent hands will undoubtedly be found. The Baltimore and Ohio, divested of its surplus and put into harmonious relations with the Pennsylvania and Reading Companies, is undoubtedly a good property. On the other hand, Pennsylvania and Reading on those conditions are much better properties than before; and so, likewise, are all the trunk lines. The transaction announced by the syndicate is the lifting of another very black cloud from the money market, and comes very happily to reinforce the movement inaugurated a few days before in the Oregon and Northern Pacific affairs.

A suit has been brought by a holder of common stock in the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Railroad to set aside as fraudulent the bulk of the preferred stock issued under the Ives & Stayner régime. This is an eminently proper proceeding, but if the expectation is to make the common stock what it was before those rascals got control of the property, it will prove a bitter disappointment. The fact, as we have reason to believe, is, that the road is so completely wrecked and its capital so greatly impaired that it needs not less than $1,500,000 of new money to put it in good condition—such condition as any experienced railway manager would consider safe and sound. If this is the state of the case, the interest on the fresh capital required will consume the small remnant of surplus earnings applicable to dividends on the stock, and leave both common and preferred wallowing in the mire of "fancies" on the Stock Exchange, having no value for a long time to come except for voting purposes. It is claimed that $1,000,000 of the preferred stock was properly issued, so that no dispute can be raised as to its legality. The dividends upon this amount accordingly become a part of the fixed charges of the road as against the common stock, and this dividend is included in the reckoning we have made. It is our belief, based upon information such as business men usually rely upon, that the C., H. D. has passed, under the Ives & Stayner management, from the list of sound dividend-paying properties to the category of sick estates requiring reorganization of the most radical character, and that this condition has been brought about by barefaced robbery of its treasury and assets.

The holders of "secured loans" to Ives have been remarkably patient up to the present time. One or two of the number extricated themselves by a bold dash. They were wise. They would have been wiser if they had never lent any money to a notorious sharper; but this remark applies more especially to those who are still counting as valuable assets the stock of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Railroad, either common or preferred. It is most likely that they will take possession of the road and operate it. When they find out how greatly its capital is impaired, and how large a sum of good money has to be thrown after the bad in order to save the property from being engulfed, it is to be hoped that they will invoke the aid of the District Attorney to secure the ends of justice and to make the way of the future transgressor hard. The transactions of Ives are no whit better than those of the scamp who helped himself to the money of the Manhattan Bank. He borrowed money on the pledge of certain securities, and then spirited away the property that the securities represented. If there is no punishment for such operations, there ought to be none for bank robbery.

It is in one sense surprising that the offerings of bonds to the Treasury on August 31 should have been smaller than on any preceding Wednesday since the Secretary's circular was issued, while the money market is working closer than before, and the rate of interest stiffening. The reason probably is, that during the previous week there had been several thunder-clouds hanging over the money market, making investors timid, and leading them to hold on to first-class securities with more than usual tenacity. In such times a Government bond is a precious thing to have, even though it is sure to be called in and redeemed at par within four years. Although the premium will be lost if the bond is held until maturity, the bond itself is the one fire-proof thing that a capitalist likes to have within reach if a conflagration is apprehended. The bond pays a fair interest, and the principal is known to be secure beyond peradventure. With the gradual disappearance of trouble on the Stock Exchange, we may look for a freer offering of bonds. Meanwhile, the large disbursement of money for pensions this month will prevent any undue accumulation of money in the Treasury.

Gen. Butler has taken the field as a pension candidate for the Presidency, and it behooves Gov. Foraker and all other aspirants for that position to look out for themselves. We are unable to see how any of them can go further than Butler does in his platform. He says that we have to day $585,000,000 in the Treasury which "is of no earthly use." The question is, How is this money to be got out of the Treasury? "My idea, comrades," he says, "is that it should be distributed equitably. How is that? Make a service pension for every man who served three months in the war so much, and so on, according to the desert of the pensioner. In this way the money would be distributed, and could never go wrong." If there is any surplus left after this has been done, he is in favor of using it "for the purpose of administering to the necessities of the Confederate soldiers of the South, who were not blamable for this war being brought upon us, but are only sufferers by it." That is the first bid of the kind we have seen. The Mahone Republicans in Virginia have been in favor of State pensions for Confederate soldiers, but have said nothing about national aid to them. Butler's scheme is far ahead of all others, therefore, and no man can doubt that, if it were put in force, it would dispose of the surplus problem for many years to come.

The Democratic Convention of Pennsylvania has adopted a platform which is in the main very strong and serviceable. It is the first State platform we have seen that gives due recognition to the financial success of the Administration. The neglect of the party generally to

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signalize the first-rate achievements of the Treasury Department, and the credit it has reflected upon the American name, may be due to inability to understand what constitutes success in that line, or it may result from a lingering belief, handed down from the greenback era, that the poorest kind of money is the right kind for the poor man. Somebody in the Pennsylvania Convention, and most probably Mr. Scott, has brought the party to a knowledge of the fact that Mr. Cleveland's Administration has strengthened the public credit, and has contributed, as much as any Administration can, to the state of business prosperity which now exists. It is perhaps an overstatement to say that it has restored to the business community confidence in the Democratic party as regards the management of financial affairs. It will require more than one Administration to do that. It has established confidence in itself, and it has proved that the Republicans have no monopoly of financial skill, prudence, and integrity.

The resolution regarding the tariff is trumpeted in some quarters as a great victory for Mr. Randall, but we cannot so understand it. Mr. Randall has repeatedly declared himself in favor of repealing the whole internal-revenue system—whiskey tax, bank-note tax, oleomargarine tax, and all. The object he has in view is to avoid any reduction of duties on imports. The resolution declares in favor of "a wise and prudent reduction of internal taxation *and* of duties on imports." This surely is not Mr. Randall's programme. It is an unobjectionable programme, whoever may have been its author. Free-traders would prefer that the reduction of taxation should take effect on import duties only, seeing that the internal tax rests now almost wholly upon liquors and tobacco, neither of which can be accounted necessaries of life. But they are not so impracticable as to insist upon theoretical perfection in a tax system. All that the great majority of tariff reformers ask is what the Pennsylvania platform promises, a wise and prudent reduction of both internal and import duties. On the two subjects of immigration and pensions the platform is more rational and honest than that of the Republicans. It does not hold out the delusive promise of prohibiting the coming in of such laborers as may compete with laborers already here, on the flimsy pretence of stopping the immigration of paupers. It declares merely that existing laws should be strictly enforced, opposes illiberal restrictions, and favors such additional measures of "regulation" as may be necessary. It favors liberal pensions, but with a proper saving clause against fraudulent claims, and puts the party in accord with Mr. Cleveland's policy in this regard. Upon the whole, there is less cant and more directness of speech and more common sense in the platform than the public commonly look for in the resolutions of party conventions.

The platform of the Iowa Democrats is notable for its hearty commendation of the President, and its frank avowal in favor of tariff reform. It calls for the "immediate revision of our tariff laws to a revenue basis," and opposes the abolition of the taxes on liquor and tobacco. There is no clap-trap about this, and no attempt to disguise its meaning. Indeed, we think a noticeable improvement is visible in the Democratic platform literature this year in the direction of plainness of statement. The party appears to be gaining something in self-confidence and in the courage which ought to accompany its convictions. It has a great opportunity to do this now, for the Republican platforms are coming more and more to be mere catch-alls for various kinds of "votes," being constructed upon the idea that the way to carry elections in this country is to offer some sort of a bribe for nearly every man's vote.

The findings of the Civil-Service Commissioners, in their inquiry concerning the conduct of the Collector at Chicago in removing Mr. Webster from the Appraisership, are very interesting. The charge made against the Collector by Mr. Webster was that when the former demanded his resignation, he called upon him and asked the reason, and was assured by the Collector that no complaint had been urged against his official conduct and ability, which were excellent, but that, owing to a great pressure, there was a necessity that vacancies should be made, adding: "You must remember that our party has been out of power for twenty-five years, and you should be thankful for having been allowed to stay two years under a Democratic administration." The case of Mr. Webster was taken up by the Civil-Service Reform League of Chicago, and made the basis of a complaint to the President against the Collector. The Civil-Service Commission appointed one of their number, Mr. Edgerton, a special committee to investigate the charge. Mr. Edgerton did so, and made a report to the Commission in which he exonerated the Collector, took the ground that Mr. Webster was not removed but had resigned, censured the Civil-Service Reform League for its course in the matter, and declared that the Collector, in refusing during the inquiry to give his reasons for demanding Mr. Webster's resignation, inasmuch as those reasons were in his "own mind and keeping," was acting in strict conformity with the Civil-Service Law.

This report of Mr. Edgerton was reviewed by the other two members of the Commission, Messrs. Lyman and Oberly, and an opinion directly adverse to its conclusions was reached. This opinion has been sent to the President with the report. It sustains Mr. Webster's charge and the course of the Civil-Service League of Chicago completely, and calls attention to the facts that Mr. Webster was an honorably discharged wounded soldier, who passed the civil-service examination with an average of 90.5 per cent., was absolutely appointed to office after his probationary term had satisfactorily demonstrated his conduct and capacity, was afterwards promoted for faithful and efficient service, and was never guilty of partisanship, offensive or otherwise. The opinion also pronounces untenable Mr. Edgerton's position justifying the Collector in refusing to give his reasons for the removal, and in conclusion expresses its dissent from Commissioner Edgerton's censure of civil-service reform leagues and associations, and particularly of the Civil-Service Reform League of Chicago, and says that the Commission's observation has discovered no purpose in any of them to antagonize the Administration, or to in any way embarrass it in the enforcement of the Civil-Service Law and Rules. On the contrary, all such leagues and associations have shown a most earnest desire to support the Commission in the discharge of its duties.

We trust that the President will follow in this case the precedent which he set in the Indianapolis case, and sustain the finding of the majority of the Commission, without regard to the fact that while in the Indianapolis case the report was in favor of the accused official, in this case it is against him. It would be difficult to find a more brazen defiance of the Civil Service Law than the Chicago Collector has committed. He has not merely demanded, without cause, the resignation of an incumbent, but of an incumbent who obtained his office through civil-service examinations and in strict accordance with civil-service regulations, and who, in the performance of his duties, has shown himself in every way efficient and faithful. If such an incumbent can be removed without cause or without specified reason, there is no protection for any official against a similar fate. The law might as well be nullified *in toto* at once, for if the view which Mr. Edgerton and the Chicago Collector attempt to take of it is allowed to prevail, it is not worth the paper it is printed upon.

The attempt of some stockholders in a Louisiana newspaper to get an injunction restraining the editor from "supporting" the nomination of one of two candidates for an office, on the ground that the paper was naturally or constitutionally Democratic, has an absurd air, on the theory that the campaign editor is a sort of prophet, laying his soul's convictions before a bewildered people. But it is not in the least absurd on the theory on which campaign journalism is usually conducted. There is rarely a canvass for a high office in which scores of editors do not turn round, after the nomination is made, and cover with laudation a man whom they had previously been abusing and proving to be unfit for any office, even if his election were possible. In some, but rare cases, an editor avoids this humiliation by "going to Europe" until after the election, or nominally handing the editorship over to some one else. Generally this delicacy is not thought necessary. During the Blaine canvass in 1884, for instance, many of his chief eulogists were writers and speakers whose contempt for him and distrust of him had previously been proclaimed on the house-tops, or were well known among private friends. The truth is, that the editorial "support" given to candidates by party newspapers is not a moral, but a purely mechanical agency, which is therefore really a perfectly proper thing for

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the courts to lay hold of and either enjoin or mandamus. There is no more reason why a party editor should not be made to stop supporting by injunction or made to keep on supporting by mandamus, than why he should not be compelled to refrain from cutting off an ancient light or to execute a contract for advertising. In view of the way canvasses are notoriously conducted by "organs," it is preposterous to ask the courts to treat them as consciences or moral entities of any description.

Kentucky has long stood in urgent need of a new constitution, the present instrument being an antiquated affair adopted before the war, which contains the declaration that the right of property in slaves is "before and higher than any constitutional sanction," and which still forbids free negroes to live in the State. Repeated efforts have been made to secure the calling of a convention to frame a new constitution, but they have always failed because the restrictions placed upon any change in the instrument itself are extremely severe. Not merely must a majority of the voters who go to the polls vote for a convention to start the movement for revision, but this majority must be a majority of all the qualified voters in the State, which is always an extremely difficult thing to get for any proposition. Fortunately, however, the vote at the recent State election was unprecedentedly large, and out of 278,308 persons entitled to vote, 162,557, or a clear majority, took the trouble to vote for a convention. Even now the people must vote again upon the question two years hence, and it will be four years at the earliest before the convention can meet.

Delaware is another State which urgently needs a new constitution, and which is also discussing the matter this year. The last Legislature appointed a special election next November, to take the sense of the people upon the question of holding a convention; and as the only other possible method of amending the instrument, by the action of successive Legislatures, with the approval of the Governor, has been tried and found wanting, there ought to be no question of carrying the proposition. The difficulty in the way is, that many of the politicians in both parties are hostile to any change, and are evidently going to do all they can to defeat the convention movement. As it is always hard to get a majority of the people to take interest enough in an election which involves only the question of constitutional revision to overcome the opposition of men who have selfish motives for preventing a change, there is too much reason to fear that the reform may fail.

A great light is thrown upon the George-McGlynn anti-poverty crusade by a response which Mr. George made in his paper last week to a man who wrote him a letter suggesting that a fund of $10,000 be raised to provide coal and soup for the poor of New York next winter. Mr. George declined to have anything to do with the project, saying that the Anti-Poverty Society was formed to abolish poverty, not to relieve the poor, and that "in using all the money we can raise to urge on the crusade we have begun, we shall be using it for a far higher and more beneficent purpose than if we applied it to alms-giving." What this purpose is we presume is indicated by another remark in the same paper, that the "great means by which the emancipation of labor is to be attained is not the carrying of elections, but the stimulation of thought." In other words, the way to abolish poverty and emancipate labor is to put money in the anti-poverty contribution box and subscribe to Henry George's paper, and then, if there is anything left, buy copies of Henry George's books. That is called stimulating thought, but to the unsympathetic observer it looks uncommonly like a scheme for getting a living by quackery.

Bishop Wigger of Newark, N. J., seems to the lay eye to have made a great mistake in his address before the German Catholic Union at Chicago on Sunday, in appealing to his hearers not to send their children to the public schools, on spiritual grounds solely. He disposed of the argument by which most Catholic parents are influenced, that the education given in the public schools is better than that given in the clerical schools, by saying that this was of no consequence—that the salvation of the child's soul was the principal thing, and that this can only be secured by clerical training. He even went so far as to admit that the public schools were better for the purposes of this life than clerical schools. This was injudicious, because it is likely to make the continued attendance of Catholic children at the public schools seem a proof or indication of the parents' indifference to their fate in the world to come. We should have thought it sound policy to leave a veil of uncertainty over the state of mind of Catholic fathers or mothers who use the common schools, and, indeed, to assume that when they sent the children to them they did not know the risks to which they were exposing them. For if they continue to send them after such warning as Bishop Wigger's, will it not seem that they do not believe their clergy, and care nothing about spiritual dangers? It is on these grounds that ecclesiastical authorities in all denominations in modern times refrain as much as possible from the infliction of the higher ecclesiastical penalties. They are afraid of the scandal which would be caused by the total indifference of the culprits to the punishment imposed on them. It was in remembrance of this that the old Scotch Judge reminded a prevaricating witness that "the eye of Almighty God *and* of the police of Edinburgh were upon him."

It would hardly be possible to conceive of a more embarrassing difficulty in the working of a federal system than has arisen in Canada. The Canadian Federal Constitution gives the Federal Government the exclusive right to authorize the construction of new lines of railroad, and it has guaranteed the Canadian Pacific line against competition westward and southward. In defiance of all this, the Provincial Legislature of Manitoba has authorized the construction of a line from Winnipeg to the United States boundary, where it would connect with the Northern Pacific, and it has disregarded the "disallowance" of the Federal Government and an injunction from the Federal courts, and is going on with the work. Sir John Macdonald, the Dominion Premier, was reported to have declared he would call for British regulars to overcome this resistance, but this foolish speech he repudiates. In fact, it is not easy to see how the Manitobans can be put down in seeking their material development in their own way. Had they strong national feeling, they would probably be willing to sacrifice themselves for the Federal idea, but they evidently have not, and the Government can hardly venture to kill them for trying to construct a railroad on their own soil at their own expense. If blood were once shed, it would be ever after very difficult to keep the province in the Dominion.

The broad assertion of *Le Nord* of Brussels (a journal employed as a semi-official organ by the Russian Foreign Office), "that there can be no question at present of sending a Russian general to Sofia, which will only be done when the authority of Turkey is completely restored in Bulgaria on a loyal basis," may be accepted as disposing of the recent reports that Gen. Ernroth was to be sent by the Czar, jointly with the Sultan, to bring about the election of a new Bulgarian Sobranye and a fresh election of a Prince; that he was to be supported by Turkish forces; and that Prince Bismarck approved of the measure. Not that *Le Nord* must always be thought truthfully inspired from St. Petersburg, but the statements thus semi-officially denied were intrinsically improbable. The Russian Government would surely not repeat, through the instrumentality of Gen. Ernroth, the attempt made by his former coworker in Bulgaria, Gen. Kaulbars, which ended in so painful a fiasco. Were the attempt to be renewed in a different way, with the positive announcement that a rejection of the Russian military envoy's proposals would be followed by the entrance of a Turkish army into Bulgaria, is there much likelihood that Prince Ferdinand, who has shown such plucky, or say reckless, determination in accepting the Bulgarian crown, would timidly drop it at the feet of a Russian would-be proconsul, from fear of a first collision with a pasha? And would not the Bulgarians, in defence of their independence, stand by him as they stood by Alexander of Battenberg, when he called out their raw levies against Milan of Servia? And supposing him defeated by overwhelming forces, as Milan was by inferior ones, would not Austria-Hungary, now the protector of Bulgarian interests, check the Turkish advance by a threat of counter-intervention, as it checked Alexander in his pursuit of Milan? Such intervention and counter-intervention could not but lead to a general war in Eastern Europe, and for this Russia is not prepared at this moment, nor has the Czar the least inclination for it. Russia protests firmly against Ferdinand's usurpation, but she will wait patiently for a more favorable moment for effecting his downfall, by open force or secret intrigue.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 31, to TUESDAY, September 6, 1887, inclusive.

DOMESTIC.

THE public-debt statement shows a reduction of $4,809,475.41 for August.

The Department of State has received copies of a recent contract made between the Venezuelan Government and one of its citizens for the establishment of telegraphic communication between Venezuela and the United States.

The American Board of Foreign Missions has made a statement to the Department of State of the imprisonment without cause, as they have been informed, of the Rev. Mr. Doane, an American missionary to the Caroline Islands, by the Spanish Governor, who transported him to Manila to be tried. The complaint has been transmitted to the United States Consul at Manila, with instructions to ascertain the facts and to take the necessary steps to protect the missionary from unjust treatment.

Gen. Terry has reported to the War Department that "the Utes are all on the reservation, and that everything is quiet."

The people of Arizona have presented to Gen. Nelson A. Miles a sword which is said to be, with one possible exception, the finest gift of the kind ever received by an officer of our army. The hilt is of white shark skin and gold, and is set with a large amethyst. It is ornamented also with an engraved portrait of Chief Nachez. The scabbard, which is of gold, bears on one side a portrait of Geronimo and a series of pictures of warfare on the frontier. On the other side is the inscription of presentation. The Spanish blade is so perfectly tempered that its point can be made almost to touch the hilt. Its cost is thought to have been not less than $10,000.

The President on August 31 appointed S. S. Carlisle of Louisiana to be Minister Resident and Consul-General to Bolivia.

In reply to an invitation by Mayor Hewitt and the Common Council of this city to Mrs. Cleveland to present a stand of colors to the firemen at the annual parade next month, she has written a letter of declination, in which she says: "I hope that I shall not be misunderstood when I base my declination of your kind invitation upon my unwillingness to assume that I, as the wife of the President, ought to participate so prominently in a public ceremony in which he takes no part."

The International Medical Congress began its session in Washington September 5. President Cleveland opened the Congress, and Secretary Bayard made an address of welcome. There are more than 4,000 physicians in attendance, nearly every civilized country being represented, and among the visitors are many distinguished men.

The members of O. J. Crane Post of the Grand Army of Cleveland, O., have adopted resolutions declaring that "this Post looks with disapprobation and condemnation upon every demonstration of disrespect towards the legally constituted Executive of the national Government, the same being subversive of the foundation principles of the Grand Army," and expressing the hope "that the Department, in its convocation at St. Louis, will take such action as will demonstrate that the Grand Army is not an organization for political purposes, or through which to manifest malice, hatred, or ill will."

The Pennsylvania Democratic Convention at Allentown, August 31, nominated J. Ross Thompson for Supreme Court Judge, and B. J. McGrann for State Treasurer. The platform expressed praise of Mr. Cleveland's Administration, and declared that the internal-revenue taxes should be reduced; and the plank about the tariff was a declaration in favor of the position taken by Mr. Randall and the protectionist faction of the Democratic party.

The Democrats of Iowa, September 1, nominated a State ticket, with T. J. Anderson for Governor. The platform commends President Cleveland's Administration, especially for the restoration of the public lands to the use of settlers, for the reform of the civil service, and for "the efficiency, liberality, and impartiality of the Pension Department." The Iowa Democrats "call upon Congress for the immediate revision of our tariff laws to a revenue basis," and "favor the retention of the internal-revenue tax on intoxicating liquors and tobacco, and protest against its proposed reduction for the purpose of continuing the present high tariff on the necessaries of life." They desire to repeal the present prohibitory State liquor law and to substitute a local-option law.

The Baltimore *Civil-Service Reformer*, the official organ of the Maryland Civil-Service Reform Association, which speaks for the Independent Democratic voters in that State, in its September number announces its support of the Republican State ticket. An Independent Democratic campaign will be conducted.

George W. Thobe, the Labor candidate in the Sixth Congressional District of Kentucky, has filed his notice and his testimony within the time prescribed by law, as a contestant of Mr. Carlisle's seat in Congress.

The Lackawanna County (Penn.) Republican Convention on September 3 elected delegates to the National Convention of 1888, and instructed them to vote for Mr. Blaine.

A large meeting of business men was held at Buffalo August 30, at which speeches favoring commercial union with Canada were delivered by Mr. Erastus Wiman of New York and Representative Benjamin Butterworth of Ohio. A resolution favorable to commercial union was unanimously adopted.

Labor Day (September 5) was observed as a holiday by most of the working people of New York; and there was a parade of perhaps 25,000 members of labor organizations, which was reviewed by Henry George and other prominent men of the Labor party. Manufactories and the business exchanges were closed, but the day was observed as a holiday (as it is made by law in this State) by few other persons than members of labor organizations. In Boston and Philadelphia and Baltimore, and in a number of the Western cities, the day was spent in similar fashion.

Before the German Catholic Union of the United States in Chicago September 4, Bishop Wigger of Newark, N. J., preached a sermon, wherein he said: "Some parents have an idea that the instruction in the public schools is better than in the schools connected with the church. This is a false idea; but, admitting even that it is true, what justification can it be for such parents? Think of the effects of public schools on your offspring! When they grow up, does it not result in their falling from grace and saying to themselves: 'Is religion so weighty a matter as the priests and our parents say it is?'"

On August 31, the anniversary of the destructive earthquake at Charleston, S. C., the more ignorant people, especially the negroes, were greatly alarmed. During the year more than 5,000 buildings, exclusive of churches and public buildings, have been restored, and 141 more have been rebuilt, and 271 new ones have been erected. Of the total amount contributed for the relief of sufferers, $600,000 have been applied to the repair of 2,200 houses, mostly the homes of very poor people. Besides this sum, the property-owners of Charleston have expended for repairs about $1,500,000. Altogether not less than $3,500,000, it is estimated, have been spent in the restoration and improvement of the city.

The Grand Jury of Dodge County, Georgia, has indicted a superintendent of a convict camp, named Bryant, for murder, because he compelled a sick convict to work till he fell dead.

An "Anti-Russian Treaty Society" has been organized at Chicago to agitate for the defeat of the projected treaty between the United States and Russia.

The franchises and business of the Baltimore and Ohio Express Company have been sold to the United States Express Company for a period of thirty years. It is generally understood that the price paid was $2,500,000, of which $1,000,000 was in cash, and the balance in stock of the United States Express Company.

Mr. A. B. Stickney, President of the Minnesota and Northwestern Railroad, at a cost of $100,000, will present to the city of St. Paul a building for a public library, art school, and conservatory of music.

Mrs. F B. Thurber on August 31 sent a communication to the press announcing the suspension of the National Opera Company. The company yet owes a considerable debt, the payment of which at present is impossible, but the hope is expressed of a resumption of the work. The National Conservatory of Music, which has been in existence two years, will be maintained and developed. In another year it will have finished the training of a number of young artists.

The annual meeting of the American Library Association was held at Round Island, N. Y., and adjourned September 2, to meet next year at St. Louis.

A trotting race was run at Fostoria, O., on the night of September 1 on a track illuminated by natural gas.

An oil well was shot near Cygnet, O., August 30, which in three hours filled a 900-barrel tank, and during the first twenty-four hours gave out 5,000 barrels of oil.

It was discovered on August 31 that the Saco and Biddeford Savings Institution, at Saco, Me., had been robbed by a young clerk, Frank C. McNeilly, nineteen years old. He ran away, taking $3,500 in cash, United States registered 4 per cent. bonds, payable in 1907, amounting to $185,000, and railroad, municipal, and other bonds amounting to about $80,000.

Many small vessels have been wrecked in the Atlantic within the last fortnight, and nearly all that were at sea during the last week in August suffered more or less damage. The schooner *William H. Jones*, from New York for a Haytian port, returned September 6 almost a wreck. The captain and one of the seamen were washed overboard in a storm which was encountered near the Great Bahama Islands.

Bishop Wm. L. Harris of the Methodist Episcopal Church died in this city on September 2, in his seventieth year. The Rev. John Allen, an eccentric and widely known preacher in Maine, who was commonly called "Camp Meeting" John Allen, died on the East Livermore Camp Grounds August 31, in his ninety-third year. The Rev. Dr. Augustus Abeel of Stamford, Conn., died September 5, in his eighty-seventh year.

FOREIGN.

Ten thousand persons September 4 attended the meeting of the Irish National League at Ennis, Ireland, which had been proclaimed. The police took possession of the hill of Ballycoree, where it was intended to hold the meeting, and when the procession, including Messrs. Timothy Sullivan, Dillon, Cox, Sheehy, William O'Brien, and Philip Stanhope, all members of the House of Commons, and several priests, moved towards the hill, it stopped in a field and listened to speeches. After a parley with the officers of a troop of hussars the crowd returned to Ennis, where Mr. O'Brien addressed it in a public square. The soldiers and police again appearing, the procession passed on to a hotel and dispersed quietly. There were lighted

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candles in the windows of almost every house in the town, and an enormous crowd welcomed the visitors. Speeches were made by nearly all the members of Parliament present. The incident was important because it was the first meeting that had been proclaimed in the time of the present Ministry.

Mr. Lane, member of Parliament, speaking at Queenstown September 5, said that the Parnellites intend to continue to hold meetings, even at the point of the bayonet. If the Government attempted to suppress their meetings, they would meet with barricaded doors. The Liberal League, at a meeting in Alexandra Palace, has resolved to establish branches of that association wherever National League lodges are prohibited in Ireland.

The votes for the police and for the expenses of criminal prosecution in Ireland have provoked long and angry debates in the House of Commons.

It is given out that Mgr. Persico, in his report to the Pope on his Irish mission, points out the necessity for the interests of Ireland of a permanent agent of the Vatican at London.

In the House of Commons September 1 Mr. Balfour said that the Government would allow no more money for the transportation of pauper emigrants to America during the remainder of the year. Seven steamers which sailed from Queenstown August 30 and 31 took on board 858 emigrants for this country.

In the House of Commons on September 5 the Allotments Bill passed its third reading.

In the Parliamentary election to fill the vacancy in the Ramsey or North Division of Huntingdonshire August 30, Mr. William Henry Fellowes, Conservative, was reëlected over Mr. Saunders, the Gladstonian candidate, by a vote of 2,700 to 2,414. In the last election Mr. Fellowes was unopposed, and as the Liberals this time came so near capturing the district, they regard the result as an additional proof of the change of English public opinion in favor of Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy.

Many Americans who are visiting England went to Hawarden September 4 to pay their respects to Mr. Gladstone, and attended church, where he read the lessons of the day. After the service the path from the church door was lined on both sides by the visitors, who greeted him as he passed, and Mr. Gladstone returned each greeting cordially.

Mr. Gladstone has written in reply to the Duke of Argyll's recent severe criticism: "The Duke of Argyll is an old friend, whose attacks I prefer bearing silently. I do not excuse tyranny, but I wish to have the National League dealt with legally, and not by the arbitrary decision of the Viceroy or Chief Secretary for Ireland."

The Theatre Royal at Exeter, England, was burned on the evening of September 5, while it was filled with an audience. The fire started in the scenery, and, although the exits were opened quickly, a number of persons, not less than 140, it is thought, perished. Most of them were in the gallery. Besides these, forty or fifty were badly hurt. Some of the corpses were so badly burned that they were unrecognizable. The chief hindrance to escape was an angle in the stairway which was blockaded when 200 excited people attempted to descend at once.

The Home Secretary made the statement in the House of Commons on September 6 that no official survey of the burned theatre had been made by the Home Office, which had no authority to survey theatres in the provinces. That duty devolved upon the magistrates, who had power to refuse licenses if their demands regarding construction were not complied with. But he said that this calamity showed the necessity of legislation, and the Government intended to deal with the subject.

When the British fleet which is cruising in the Mediterranean arrived at Bougie, Algeria, recently, the officials went aboard the flag-ship to pay their respects to the Duke of Edinburgh, Admiral of the squadron. They were informed that the Duke was in bed, and retired without having seen him. The French press has made angry comment on this indignity.

The French newspapers all declare that the mobilizing experiment is a success, and say that if France had been in such a condition for war in 1870 as she is now, Germany would have found her match.

The French Government has decided to prosecute the *Figaro* for publishing the details of the mobilization scheme, which it had obtained from dishonest employees of the War Department.

The safe in the office of the Crédit Mobilier in Paris was robbed of 125,000 francs September 5 by a clerk, who has been arrested.

The Crown Prince of Germany left England September 3 for the Tyrol, much improved in health. Dr. Mackenzie accompanied him.

While passing through the salons of the palace September 1, the Emperor of Germany stumbled over a slight unevenness in the floor and fell, bruising his left hip and elbow. Great uneasiness was felt for him, but no serious results have followed.

The seventeenth anniversary of the battle of Sedan was celebrated throughout Germany September 2 with great enthusiasm.

It is reported from Berlin that Hans Jaboksen, an American citizen, has been arrested on the island of Alsen, in the Baltic Sea, on a charge of deserting from the German Army in 1878.

King Otto of Bavaria's periods of insanity are becoming less frequent, but their likeness to the late King Ludwig's attacks is becoming stronger, and fear is reported that he will wholly lose his mind.

A semi-official statement was made at St. Petersburg September 6 that the flight of Ayub Khan does not alter the relations between Russia and the Afghans, because the Russian Government had nothing to do with Ayub's flight, and does not feel called upon to concern itself with internal complications. Nor is it likely to cause fresh difficulties between England and Russia, for both Governments, when settling the Russo-Afghan frontiers, adopted a solid ethnographic basis, partly guided by Turcoman and Afghan traditions. The arrangement is a durable one, and was so established that there remains no trace of dissatisfaction nor pretext for ulterior claims on either side.

Ayub Khan after his escape is reported to have gone towards Afghanistan.

A party of Russian capitalists are inspecting the cotton fields of Bokhara, with a view to selecting a suitable site on the line of the projected Samarcand Railway for a cotton mill.

A new Bulgarian Cabinet has been formed, consisting of M. Stambuloff, Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior; M. Stransky, Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Natchevitch, Minister of Finance; M. Mutkuroff, Minister of War; M. Zhivkoff, Minister of Instruction; M. Stoiloff, Minister of Justice. M. Stambuloff, the Prime Minister, is reported to have said, regarding the proposal of Russia to have a joint Russo-Turkish commission visit Bulgaria and arrange her affairs, that if Gen. Ernroth and Artin Effendi came as private persons, they would be admitted into Bulgaria, but not otherwise, and that Bulgaria would repel any interference in her internal affairs by any Power whatever. The censorship of foreign telegrams continues throughout Bulgaria, and the entry of foreign newspapers into the country is forbidden.

The Bulgarian Government is endeavoring to make a loan of $2,000,000, to be used for railway purposes, in advance of a larger loan which it is expected will be effected if Prince Ferdinand's position is assured.

At the session of the International League of Peace at Geneva September 6, arguments were made for the appointment of a permanent arbitration board for England and America, and the Swiss Federal Council was asked to endeavor to establish a similar tribunal for European nations.

The elections in Holland have resulted in the return of the necessary majority of two-thirds in the Second Chamber in favor of a revision of the Constitution—the question upon which the last Parliament was dissolved.

Señor Margall, a Republican member of the Spanish Cortes, has issued a manifesto wherein he declares that the coalition between the Federal and other branches of the Republican party is broken, and he attributes the evils which are oppressing Spain to over-centralizing. He advocates the theory of Federalism, and points out that the differences of language and literature in the various provinces fully warrant the desire of the people for self-government. He predicts that the provinces will yet attain their wish, not by a purely military conspiracy, but in the way most great changes have always been produced, by great popular revolutions.

The Pope has received home contributions amounting to $50,000 and foreign amounting to $90,000, to be devoted to paying the expenses of his jubilee mass. A number of women of Madrid have organized a series of national Basque games for the purpose of raising funds for a testimonial to the Pope. Hungarian aristocrats are arranging for a great pilgrimage to Rome on the occasion of the jubilee. Five hundred persons have already signified their intention of joining the pilgrimage.

The Chinese Government is reported to have granted to Mr. Wharton Barker of Philadelphia and Eugene de Mitkiewicz and their associates the exclusive right to construct and operate telephone lines at the treaty ports of China for a period of fifty years, and a charter for a Chinese national bank. A company of distinguished Chinamen have arrived at Washington, and with them is "Count" Mitkiewicz, whose previous adventures in business and in society in New York, Baltimore, and Washington have provoked suspicion of the concessions.

It is reported from Honolulu that there is much dissatisfaction among the better class of foreign-born residents with the military dictatorship which has grown up since the revolution of June. The newspapers are forbidden to publish ordinary court proceedings, and not a single journal in Honolulu dared to reprint the comments of American newspapers on the revolt in Hawaii. Business continues dull, owing to a sense of insecurity, and it is said to be generally understood that the new Constitution is not a final settlement of the political troubles.

The political controversy between the Liberal and Clerical parties in Mexico is becoming animated. A Republican journal, the *Monitor Republicano*, declared on September 3 its belief that there is a well-formed plan to destroy religious liberty in Mexico, and asserted that the clergy is constantly preaching a crusade against religious tolerance, as enjoined by the Constitution of the country; and that this intolerance is the chief cause of the lack of immigration. These utterances are regarded as expressing the sentiments of the advanced wing of the Liberal party, which is opposed to the slightest concession to the Clericals.

United States Consul Brigham, at Paso del Norte, was struck with a cane by the Mexican Judge Zubia August 31, and he has reported the occurrence to the State Department, and declared that he offered the Judge no indignity. It is regarded as a personal quarrel with which the Government is not concerned.

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THE SOCIALIST BUGBEAR.

GREAT pains have been taken by the promoters of the forthcoming Socialist Congress in Germany to organize it in such a way as to avoid incurring penalties under the anti-Socialist laws, and it is therefore to be an open congress —that is, anybody calling himself a Socialist is to be allowed to take part in it, but no delegates to it are to be elected. Even in this seemingly harmless shape, however, it appears to be causing the authorities more or less alarm, and it will probably be closely watched by the police. But why the Germans or anybody else are afraid of Socialists who propose simply to put their schemes into force by legislation, it is hard to see. What harm they can do by meeting, and speaking, and writing, has never been clearly explained. What makes Socialism a term of dread, both in Europe and here, is undoubtedly the large part the French have played in originating and spreading Socialist ideas, and the violence which in France has so often attended Socialist propagandism. But there is no doubt that even in France Socialism has passed or is passing rapidly out of the violent stage. The Government is ceasing to be in the least afraid of it. What made it formidable there under the various monarchies was the danger that it might begin disorders which would end in overthrowing the reigning dynasty. Now that there is no dynasty to overthrow, the police snap their fingers at the Socialists, and bid them "come on." But the Socialists do not come on. They have threatened a great deal under the Republic, and have got up several "demonstrations" for the outcome of which all Europe waited with feverish anxiety. They have always evaporated in loud talk and songs.

In like manner we had a considerable scare about Socialism in this city a year ago, when Henry George started as a Socialist candidate for Mayor—for that is what he really was—and polled an unexpectedly large vote. If he had been elected, too, it would perhaps have done a good deal of mischief by frightening city capitalists and property-owners, and exciting wild expectations among the poor and ignorant and lazy. After his vote was counted, a large number of writers and orators thought that a terrible reorganization of society—or "social liquidation," as the French call it—was at hand. George, too, was immensely elated by the support he received, and incontinently started a weekly paper, and opened his batteries on the Catholic Church and landed property. We all see what has come of it. The Socialist newspapers in this city are apparently all in financial trouble, or are torn by domestic dissensions, and the only converts of note whom George has made are one Catholic priest, Dr. McGlynn, and one Protestant clergyman, Mr. Pentecost. The more he talks, too, apparently, the less impression he makes. His land theory certainly meets with less and less acceptance every day. That is, the few people of intelligence who ever gave it serious attention become every day fewer, even if the sale of his book increases.

The truth is, that it is with Socialists as it is with strikers, the more active and numerous they become, or, in other words, the more they spread themselves, the less formidable they are. Time was when a "general strike" of all the trades in this city, or in the country at large, was talked of as a means of bringing "society" to its knees; and many good people shuddered over it as a possibility. But it was soon discovered that the more people engaged in a strike the nearer it came to the final collapse, or, in other words, that a general strike would be the *reductio ad absurdum* of the whole "labor movement." So, also, the more converts Socialism makes, the less influence it undoubtedly has on the community. As long as the preaching of it is confined to the professors, and writers, and "thinkers," it is presented in a form which has an air of reasonableness and practicability. As soon as the apostles and disciples become at all numerous, and begin to quarrel among themselves, and urge divergent views, and run after side issues, and exhibit different degrees of impatience and hopefulness, and the visionary and the lazy make their way into the more prominent positions, the monstrosity of a social organization of which such people would be the legislators and administrators, is brought home to every intelligent and industrious man, and he turns his attention away from them.

When Socialism is brought near enough to the practical to induce the public to examine it, the public always begins to laugh, and laughter is and will always be a great power in the world. For instance, that favorite plan of having all "instruments of production," land, mines, mills, and machinery, taken possession of by "the State," and worked for the general benefit, may seem now, when discussed in a library or lecture-room, to have something in it worth the attention of the statesman or philanthropist. But when it becomes politics, and the gentlemen come forward who would probably have charge of "the instruments of production" if the scheme were realized, and we picture ourselves in a community in which they would hold all our money and assign us all our daily tasks, we indulge in one hearty guffaw, and turn to our lawful occupations.

MR. GLADSTONE'S LONGEVITY.

ENGLISH politics has now entered on what is, perhaps, the most curious phase in its history. It appears to be all but certain that the Liberals who abstained from voting, or broke away from the followers of Mr. Gladstone, last year, are now prepared to return to their allegiance if the opportunity is afforded them. In other words, it appears to be all but certain that if a general election were to take place now, Mr. Gladstone would be restored to power. Consequently, as the Tories have admitted by their concessions on the Irish Land Bill, the one cardinal point in their policy is that a general election shall not be permitted to take place. The surer they are that the country, if consulted, would send Mr. Gladstone back to office, the more determined they are that it shall not be consulted.

If it be asked what is the use of putting off the evil day, the answer is that by waiting they will probably get rid of Gladstone, and Gladstone is, they flatter themselves, the only man capable of persuading Englishmen to concede home rule to the Irish. If he were to die, they think that the agitation for this particular scheme would subside, or cease to be formidable, and the whole subject might be indefinitely postponed. Consequently, as long as he lives, the constituencies must not have a chance of voting for him. That there is some truth in this there is no denying. There is no other man in the Liberal party capable just now of carrying a scheme of home rule through the House of Commons. One would doubtless arise if Mr. Gladstone were gone, but he would not show himself for some time, or until many changes had taken place in the constitution of the Liberal party. So that the really burning question of English politics today is, how long will Mr. Gladstone live? If he lives five years, and retains his intellectual vigor, home rule is pretty sure to come and the Tories be driven from power for a long period. If he dies before that time, there will be so much confusion in the Liberal ranks that even if the party got back to office, there would probably be no disposition to enter at once on schemes of such magnitude as the creation of a separate legislature for Ireland, and there might be confusion enough to disgust the public for a short period, and give the reorganized Tories a chance for another term of office.

There is very little question now in the minds of most observers that foremost among the persons whom Mr. Gladstone's continued hold on life has disappointed, and is disappointing, is Mr. Chamberlain. We presume it is doubtful, however, whether even he would have ventured to act on the presumption that the veteran's career was near its close but for the fall of Sir Charles Dilke. Dilke in his heyday was a competitor for the Liberal leadership so formidable that, if he had retained his place in public life, Chamberlain would not have thought it prudent to desert Gladstone and try to set up in business on his own account. He would have felt that, with Dilke in the field, it was at least doubtful whether he would stand any chance of the chief place. Of Hartington no candidate is now afraid, because every one knows that Hartington may any day be called up to the House of Lords; and John Morley, though the growth of his influence has been wonderfully rapid, has still too much of the littérateur about him—that is, as the Tory Squire once said of John Stuart Mill, is considered "too clever by half"—to be quite ready for party leadership. He is, moreover, weighted in the race by the fact that he is not, like Chamberlain, a man of independent fortune, something which Englishmen still consider a necessity for the highest places in politics. Consequently, it was not unnatural for Chamberlain to conclude that, if Gladstone could be got rid of, the party would look to him as the only person capable of standing in his shoes. He probably would not have broken with him on home rule, however, if he had thought Gladstone would have stayed in political life after his defeat, or have stayed on earth until now in good working condition.

It is thus no exaggeration to say, therefore, that Mr. Gladstone, by merely living on, is today profoundly disarranging the calculations of all the Conservative politicians. There would be nothing extraordinary in this if he were in office. Louis Napoleon, Bismarck, Cavour, and many other statesmen have long confounded or annoyed their enemies by

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continuing to live in the possession of great power. What is peculiar in Mr. Gladstone's case is, that he creates immense political disturbance and uncertainty simply by existing in a private station, and by impressing everybody with the belief that in his seventy-sixth year he still has a future. Nothing quite like this is, we think, to be found in the career of any other prominent public man.

NEW LIGHT ON THE CAPTURE OF MAXIMILIAN.

THE controversy now raging in the Mexican press over the question of Maximilian's capture had its beginning last April, and bids fair, before it is closed, to falsify all the histories. The accepted view, both with Mexican writers like Payno and with blind partisans of the Emperor like Domenech, has been that the besieged troops at Querétaro were basely betrayed by Col. Lopez, one of their commanders and a favorite of Maximilian. The Colonel himself, it is true, passionately declared his innocence, in a letter made public at the time; but he was replied to by the generals of the Imperial Army, who brought against his unsupported assertion such an array of facts, apparently so conclusive, that the matter was considered for ever settled.

Last spring, however, Lopez, who has always been restless under the ignominy popularly attached to his name, appears to have been freed from some mysterious pledge to silence, and published a new letter, roundly denying the charge that he had played the part of a traitor to his chief, and boldly appealing to Gen. Escobedo, the head of the besieging army, for confirmation of his innocence. "You once wrote to me, General," said Lopez, under date of April 29, "that you had not spoken because you had not been asked to speak; now I ask you, in the name of the truth, and I beseech you for the sake of my honor, as well as your own, to speak." Escobedo was at the time at his estate in Guanajuato, but submitted to an interview with a reporter about the middle of May, in which he substantially upheld Lopez. He declared that Lopez came to him in the night of May 14, 1867, representing himself as an authorized ambassador from Maximilian, and offering, on the part of the latter, a surrender of Querétaro, together with an absolute renunciation of the Mexican crown. The only conditions asked were permission for himself and certain of his generals to depart with an escort to Tuxpam, there to embark for Europe, never to return to Mexico. Escobedo demanded some proof that Lopez was empowered to make such an offer, and was shown letters of Maximilian amply certifying what the secret emissary had said. Thereupon the Liberal General said that his orders were either an unconditional surrender or an assault. Lopez besought him to avoid the bloodshed which would result, and the probable spread of the war over the whole country, but Escobedo remained firm. Lopez asked nothing for himself, neither promotion nor guarantees nor money, but spoke only in behalf of the Emperor, to whom he professed the most unbounded attachment. And after the capture, when Maximilian was a prisoner, and when Lopez sought an interview with the fallen Emperor, Escobedo took pains to ask the latter if it would be agreeable to him to see Lopez, referring to the rumors of treason, and Maximilian distinctly said: "Col. Lopez has not been false to me in the least."

The publication of this interview in the *Diario del Hogar* caused a tremendous sensation. Two of Escobedo's generals of division, Arce and Gallardo, rushed into print to express their incredulity, and to repeat the details of the suspicious conduct of Lopez on the night of the capture, of which they had been eye-witnesses. Escobedo politely replied to them, admitting their perfect honesty, but assuring them that they were mistaken. He also announced that he was preparing a detailed account of the whole matter, which he intended to transmit to the Secretary of War for publication in the *Diario Oficial*. It was expected that this narrative would appear last June; in fact, it is almost certain that it was sent to the Government as long ago as that; but, for some unknown reason, it has not yet been made public.

Meanwhile, several facts of great significance have been brought out in the newspaper discussions, going to show, it is probable, what the real state of the case will be found to be. A captain in the Belgian Guards, one of Maximilian's regiments, reports the general belief of the besieged troops that there was to be a surrender, and that Lopez was acting at the Emperor's orders. There was great surprise, the Captain says, at the cry of treason raised against Lopez: it was the understood thing, the men supposed, that the city was to be surrendered and the safety of Maximilian and his generals secured. On August 21 the *Monitor* published a letter of Maximilian's, which Gen. Escobedo had had photographed and shown to some of his friends. It was written to Lopez three days after the surrender, and besought him to keep a profound secret his errand to Escobedo, lest it might bring a stain upon the Emperor's honor. And Monday's despatches speak of a second letter, even more compromising, in which Maximilian refers to bribes offered to secure his personal safety.

All this points to the conclusion, which we believe will be supported by the official account when published, that the unfortunate Archduke had grown utterly weary of the whole affair, despaired of ultimate success even if temporarily triumphant, repented bitterly of his return after his abdication, and only wished to be well out of the struggle. The negotiations with Escobedo failing, he seems to have adopted the plan of a surrender under the guise of a betrayal, confident that he would soon be at liberty in Vienna. To his surprise, as to that of the whole world, he was soon put on trial for his life. Then he resolved to keep silent about all that had gone before, and to go to his inevitable death like a brave man. Why Lopez has remained quiet all these years, is a mystery. Why Escobedo has never spoken, is still more mysterious. Now that the long silence is to be broken, it may be expected that these points will be cleared up. It seems almost certain that we shall have to add to the other weaknesses of Maximilian a selfish cowardice in the last days of his empire, scarcely atoned for by his unflinching courage when the end finally came

TEACHING WHIST.

ONE of the most curious social phenomena of the year is the success which has attended the attempts to teach whist in classes, both in this city and in Boston, last winter, and during the past summer at some of the watering-places. It has been found, as a matter of fact, that a good whist-player, possessed of fair teaching capacity, has no difficulty in getting pupils enough to make it worth while to treat whist-teaching as a calling. The experiment thus far (which, we may mention, has only been made between ladies) has revealed the fact that the number of people who want to play whist both in summer and winter is very large, and is probably increasing, and also that a very large proportion of those who have been playing the greater part of their lives are really ignorant of what is called scientific or modern whist, as moulded by such great masters as Cavendish and Pole. Then, too, a very large proportion of those who play either the old or the new game, whether to oblige friends by "taking a hand," or to help to pass dull days or dull evenings, suffer year after year from a consciousness of gross incapacity, and consequently from a sense of humiliation, from which they are eager to escape by obtaining competent instruction.

It is often said in general terms that the way to learn to play whist well is to play with good players. This is in part true, but it is mainly delusive. There is, to many people, not much use in seeing what good players do, without knowing the reason why they do it, and this good players are not ready to give, and in fact the rules of the game forbid their giving it while playing. All the direct instruction the unfortunate whist dunce receives while actually playing, he is apt to get only from the contemptuous reproaches of his partner, or the contemptuous silence of his opponents, after each hand. But it is not very profitable to know that you have been playing the part of an ignoramus without knowing how you showed it. In fact, good players play whist for their own pleasure, and never will or can be induced to mingle with their play a little kindly help for beginners or incapables. Their feeling towards them is rarely anything but one of annoyance at their appearance in a rôle for which they have no fitness. Some of the books even contain special directions for acting with stupid partners without any sacrifice of one's own comfort. All this makes a teacher of whist—that is, somebody who will deal tenderly with poor players, tell them why they have blundered, and what they ought to have done but did not do, in a spirit of kindness or even commiseration—wear the air of a ministering angel; and we should venture to predict, therefore, that the most successful teachers will be, as indeed they are now, women.

The reasons for the increasing popularity of whist, and consequently increasing desire to learn it, are not, we think, far to seek. It is not wholly a game of skill, like chess, and therefore does not impose that severe strain on the nerves which makes chess an impossible game in the evening to poor sleepers, especially if they are very fond of it. Moreover, although whist makes a constant

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demand on the attention and the memory, it makes it through frequent changes of situation, which keep the faculties on the alert without severely tasking them. It is therefore very welcome to people who suffer from somnolency after dinner, or people who are thrown much together without having anything particular to say to each other, or who are thoroughly familiar with each other's views on everything worth talking about; and, above all, to people who have lost or have never acquired the habit of steady reading, or whose eyesight will not bear books. This class—the class who for one reason or another cannot read books in the evening—is a very large one, and one which newspaper reading is increasing enormously. The newspaper never, or rarely, asks anybody to keep his attention fixed more than a minute or two on one topic, unless by way of narrative; and a man who has read nothing but newspapers for a few years finds, by the time he reaches middle life, that he can neither read a book nor play any game of pure skill. For him whist is a great boon. It keeps him wide awake, and has just chance enough in it to treat him every few minutes to small surprises. It in this somewhat resembles a game common in England—of guessing during a ride or drive what there is at the other side of the next hill—in which the Duke of Wellington used to say he had passed all his military life. That is, you are pretty sure not to be wholly right, but you are also sure never to be very far wrong, and your errors are certain to be excusable enough to be interesting, and even sometimes flattering. The problems whist presents are, indeed, very like those which meet people in the course of a quiet, uneventful life, such as questions of dress, of housekeeping, of farming, or jaunting. They require close attention to and memory for details, some knowledge of character, and just philosophy enough for the chapter of accidents. Whist has none of the mental anxiety or harrowing regrets or self-reproaches of chess. There is always chance enough in it to save one's self-love, but not enough to furnish the wild excitement of poker or baccarat or *rouge et noir*.

Besides the people who cannot read, whist is useful to that other very large class who hate to be alone, and yet when in company have nothing particular to say. Sitting with one's fellow-creatures in silence is always very depressing, and sometimes very awkward. The situation among men is mitigated somewhat by smoking. To be sure, smokers need to talk, but they do not need to talk as much as people who have nothing to do but twirl their thumbs. But smoking is of no value in a company composed in part of women or of non-smokers. There must be some other refuge from sheer vacuity, and whist furnishes it better than any other amusement. Hence, people who shine or think they shine in conversation, often dislike it, or, if they take it up, seldom make good players. It keeps their stories and "good things" out of the market, and, indeed, their mental discursiveness and activity are a positive hindrance to their success. But we doubt if any man, whatever his special powers or accomplishments in other fields might be, has ever become a brilliant whist player without taking great pride in it, and without being ready to sacrifice to it almost any other form of social enjoyment.

THE RUSSIAN REALISTIC NOVELISTS.

New French translations from the Russian novelists appear so fast that the Western reader will soon be able to judge of the whole movement. Besides another translation of Tolstoi's 'Power of Darkness' (which includes the variants and is far better done than that by Neyrcud), E. Halpérine—or, as he now signs himself, Halpérine-Kaminsky—has published a French translation of the adaptation of the folk-tale of 'Fool Ivan' (*Ivan Durak*), under the title of 'Ivan l'Imbécile' (Perrier & Cie.), with which are put ten other short stories written for the peasants. Two more volumes that are promised, 'Le Prince Nekhliudoff' and 'Au Bivouac,' will exhaust all of Tolstoi's earlier tales, and nothing will then be left but his articles on education, written in 1862-3, and his 'Moscow Census,' if, indeed, this last has not already appeared. This volume, while open to the charge of making much out of little by the usual artifices of thick paper, very coarse print, and plenty of blank pages, does not mix up the productions of different epochs, as some previous translators have done. A curious question arises about the second story in the book, entitled "Deux Générations" (which is the French for "Two Hussars"), and which deals with a prisoner in the Caucasus; it does not appear in the full and authorized edition of Tolstoi's works. Is it in the first edition, and, if not, whence was it taken? 'My Husband and I,' announced in the London papers, is apparently another translation of what is called 'Katia' ('Family Happiness').

Whether or not the mystical, religious, and socialistic works of Count Tolstoi have any real influence in Russia, their interest to us lies in their being the product of Russian thought, as well as of a great writer, and of revealing to us the curious ways in which the Russian mind works. Even what is allowed to be printed in Russia has little if any circulation among the peasants. There are no bookshops in country villages, few in any but the larger towns; and the colportage and peddling of books and tracts are surrounded with many restrictions and difficulties. In other classes these stories and articles have the success caused by curiosity. The books circulated in manuscript are naturally very limited in number, and find their way only among people who can afford to procure them—among those of the upper class who have a personal or a literary interest in the author, or, as Mr. Kennan shows, an idea that he can be used for revolutionary purposes. Russian society is glad occasionally of a mild spiritual excitement. Such it found in the early part of the century in the Jesuits, Mme. Krüdener, Mme Swetchine, in freemasonry, and in Russian dissenters, as is told in part in 'War and Peace.' Such it found ten years ago in the revivalists, the prayer-meetings, the preaching of a Methodistical English lord whose name escapes us, but who visited Russia regularly for several seasons, and whose title added weight to his prayers and the Pashkoff sect which he helped to found. This phase is described also by Tolstoi in 'Anna Karénin.' Such spiritual excitement it finds in Tolstoi's forbidden manuscripts. Forbidden books are read in Russia chiefly because they *are* forbidden, and Leo Tolstoi's tracts are sought for now in the same way that his namesake Alexis Tolstoi's satirical, witty, and often "improper" poems were fifteen and twenty years ago.

The neglect of a writer like Gontcharoff, who is esteemed in his own country as inferior only to Turgeneff and Tolstoi, and is by many considered their superior, is astonishing. We must reflect, however, that he has written little—three novels, four short stories, and a book of travels, the 'Voyage of the Frigate *Pallas*'—and has rested on his laurels. Though still living, and high in the official hierarchy, though he has pictured characters which are recognized as purely Russian types, though he has given a very expressive word to the Russian language, he is already about forgotten. In his novel 'Oblómoff,' his greatest production (the first part only of which has been translated into French and passed off as the whole work), Gontcharoff represented the thoroughly Russian type of the indolent man, the man who never answers letters, nor replies to disagreeable questions, who puts off everything till to-morrow or a convenient time; and so exactly and carefully was this done that the word *oblomovism* was coined (not by him) to express these characteristics, corresponding, with some slight differences, to what had before been known as "Slavic indolence" (*Slavidnskaya lyén*). To be sure, the name *oblómoff* meant the broken-down man, and the language itself aided. 'Obryff' ('The Gulf'), Gontcharoff's last novel, has been also inadequately translated as 'Marc le Nihiliste;' but even in its curtailed and abridged French form, assisted by Turgeneff's 'Fathers and Sons' and 'Virgin Soil,' and Dostoyevsky's 'Demons' (*Biési*) (in French under the title of 'Les Possédés'), it enables us to understand Russian Nihilism. The four books should, however, be considered together. Now, under the title of 'Simple Histoire' (Perrin & Cie.) Halpérine has translated Gontcharoff's first novel, 'The Usual Story' (*Obyknovénn ayaistória*), which is in many points his best. Nowadays, it is perhaps a story not so common—of the youth from the country, boiling over with poetry and enthusiasm, who gradually subsides into the humdrum official; but such characters still exist, though the spread of Nihilistic feeling has made them rarer. All of Gontcharoff's works, we may remark, except his delightful 'Frigate *Pallas*,' have been conscientiously and well translated into German. The pure style of Gontcharoff, which, of course, cannot be seen from the translations, and in which among recent writers he is approached only by Turgeneff, is perhaps one reason for the admiration with which his books are regarded by Russians.

Dostoyevsky's 'Idiot' deserves neither all the praise nor all the blame bestowed on it by De Vogüé in his interesting preface to the French translation of 'Deréły' ('L'Idiot,' Plon), but is a welcome addition to our sources of knowledge of Russian character. If to the novels of Dostoyevsky, Gontcharoff, Turgeneff, and Tolstoi we add those of Pisemsky, especially those translated under the titles of 'Mille Âmes' and 'Les Faiseurs,' written before the emancipation, which describes the financial and commercial activity of later years, we shall learn about all that Russian novels can teach us. The works of these five writers comprise practically the whole of the Russian realistic movement. They have as yet had no successors worthy of being put on a par with the least of them. The 'Idiot' makes us in a measure understand the vagaries of Tolstoi, as well as the reverence paid in Russia to the half-witted. It is a psychological study of a young man afflicted with epilepsy—the malady to which the author was subject—whose mind has been partially developed, but who really is nothing but a grown-up child. But his childish characteristics, his very simplicity, like the simplicity of Shakspere's fools, are wisdom. The book contains many powerful passages—for example, the description of a criminal when he is guillotined; but in one place Dostoyevsky again allowed himself to express his petty jealousy of Turgeneff, whom he had so stupidly and untruly caricatured in 'Demons.'

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Correspondence.

A COÖPERATIVE GREEK LEXICON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was greatly interested in the letter of Prof. Hoge in No. 1155 of the *Nation*, calling attention to certain defects of our Greek lexicons. I had noticed some of them in my own reading. Even the special lexicons are much more careful to record the meaning of a word than its construction. To what extent the later editions of the 'Thesaurus' of Stephanus supply this lack, I am not in a position to know; but, from the nature of the case, the maker of a dictionary, if he labors single-handed, is compelled to depend more upon the labors of his predecessors than upon his own reading. It is only by applying the principle of the division of labor that a lack of this kind can be adequately supplied. What is impossible or exceedingly difficult for one man, may be easily accomplished by the united effort of several, particularly where success depends much less upon native ability than upon care and industry.

Since the appearance of Prof. Hoge's letter, I have taken occasion to suggest to several friends and others a remedy for the state of things which he deplores; and, in response to their expressed wish, I here make my suggestion public. It is nothing more than what must have occurred to many others. I assume that there are in the United States at least a hundred persons—teachers and advanced students—who are sufficiently interested in Greek and competent to read it critically. Let some one take the matter in charge, and, after ascertaining who are willing to coöperate, assign to each his part of the work. Let A be put in charge of the verbs beginning with any of the first five letters of the Greek alphabet in Thucydides, and let him read the text carefully, noting and copying out his verbs, and their connection where it differs from the English idiom. Let B do the same thing with the verbs beginning with the next five letters, C with the next five, and so on to the end of the alphabet. When there are variant readings or approved emendations, they should be noted. Five persons could in this way finish Thucydides in one year, and not impose upon themselves a heavy burden. If the number of collaborators should be sufficiently large, a smaller pensum could be taken by each.

A similar apportionment should be made of Xenophon's 'Anabasis,' 'Cyropædia,' and 'Memorabilia'; also of Plato's 'Symposium,' 'Philebus,' 'Politeia,' 'Phædo,' and 'Apology.' Perhaps a smaller number of the works of the last two authors would suffice, or other dialogues of Plato be preferable. For the sake of completeness, a few orations of each of the three or four leading Attic orators ought to be treated in the same way. This reading for verbs chiefly will not, of course, cover the grammatical ground entirely, but it will bring into notice almost every important point. But, *verbum sapienti sat.* Will not some American scholar take hold of this matter, and furnish to students of Greek a supplementary lexicon of the usage of verbs in Attic prose that will be a real κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί? The book need not be very large or very costly.

Chas. W. Super.

Athens, O., September 1, 1887.

COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The meeting held in Detroit on the 27th inst. for the discussion of commercial union between the United States and Canada was an occasion of unusual interest, if it prove not, in the event, of historical importance.

Three speakers more unlike in person, in habits of mind, and in methods of expression, and more heartily in accord upon the main object of the meeting, than Mr. Erastus Wiman of New York, Prof. Goldwin Smith of Toronto, and Congressman Butterworth of Ohio, could not well have been chosen. The audience was large, and was composed in the main of young and active business men, who gave a thoughtful and attentive hearing to Mr. Wiman's long, well-written, but not too well delivered address, evidently the composition of a man much in earnest and much in love with his subject. His treatment of the question was too extended and exhaustive to leave much room for the Professor's learned arguments or the politician's telling hits; but each in his different way contributed to fix in the minds of his hearers the impression left by the first speaker of the feasibility of the scheme, and of its immense advantages to both countries.

The bursts of applause which greeted both the free-trade utterances of Prof. Smith and the protectionist theories of Mr. Butterworth, showed that the meeting was divided in sentiment on the general tariff question; but the resolutions calling for commercial union and the obliteration of the customs line between the two countries were unanimously adopted.

There can be no question that this would be a great boon to our protected manufacturers as well as to the commercial and farming classes of both countries; but there is one especial advantage in such a union, which I need not say was not dwelt upon at the meeting, viz., its usefulness as an object-lesson in political economy. If the obliteration of our northern customs wall prove a good thing in practice, why not destroy the southern customs wall which shuts us off from Mexico? And, finally, when our manufacturers discover that new markets and increased orders wait upon the removal of obstructive tariffs, shall we not have free trade?

It is encouraging at least to hear so good a protectionist as Mr. Butterworth railing at "bloated monopolies fostered by a system of legislation useful in its inception, but which has been carried too far"—I quote from memory; but at least I do not err in thinking that the agitation for commercial union may be serviceable in some future agitation for free trade.—Respectfully,

Wm. W. Hudson.

Detroit, Mich., August 29, 1887.

OWNERSHIP IN LAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To the simple proposition of "no ownership in land" I have as yet seen no answer. If I own ten vacant city lots that cost me $1,000 each, but which, by increase of population and values, have become worth $10,000 each, I have by foresight or chance added to my property $90,000 less the small sum I have paid for taxes. I build or sell a lot, and the buyer builds a house on the lot worth $20,000, and he is taxed on $30,000, while I continue to hold the other nine lots, paying the comparatively small tax laid on "unimproved" property, and soon my lots sell for $20,000. Now, suppose there were no ownership in land. I build a house on one of these vacant lots. The taxes are assessed and laid as now, according to the necessities of government. My tax on my land or the land I have taken to build my house on is, say, $500. The nine lots are taxed at the same rate, but no one owns them, so no tax is paid. But men come along and say we are to put no money in the lot, only take the use and build, and they build, and thus ten lots begin to pay tax, and $500 tax on each is found to be more than the necessities of government require, and it is reduced to $100 on each. Thus ten men have built ten houses; they have been obliged to put capital in houses only; the State is richer, the individuals building the houses are richer, and only the one man—the speculator—is worse off.

I say nothing about the fact that land is now owned, and that such a change could only be brought about by doing a wrong. I ask, if there were no ownership in land, would not the community be the gainer?—Respectfully yours,

Henry Bartlett.

Poughkeepsie, August 26, 1887.

[Probably not. It is the interest of the community that land should yield the largest possible crops. It is not in accord with human nature or with human experience that cultivators of the soil should take as much pains to make it productive when owned by the State as when owned by themselves. Town-lot ownership is only a small part of the land question, and, being such a small part, we can see no advantage in discussing it separately and hypothetically. —Ed. Nation.]

SECRETARY LAMAR'S DECISION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your editorial in the *Nation* of August 25 upon Secretary Lamar's decision restoring to settlement, under the preëmption and homestead laws, the indemnity lands claimed by the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, with much interest. Its reasoning is clear, direct, and unanswerable, even upon the point with reference to which the *Nation* raises a doubt. The Secretary would have been fully justified in restoring to public entry the immense areas covered by these withdrawals, even if in order to do so he had found it necessary to contravene to some extent the doctrines of "stare decisis." The instance of the legal-tender cases, cited by the *Nation*, in which the Supreme Court of the United States from high considerations reversed its own decisions, is quite conclusive on that point.

But it seems to me that this land decision does not touch the principles either of "stare decisis" or "res adjudicata." These doctrines were developed in the courts, and apply to *cases*. They have nothing to do with questions of general policy, and an executive officer is bound by them only when practically he sits as a court and decides cases. There is a plain distinction between the action of an executive officer in deciding, upon the evidence coming properly before him, a *case* falling within his jurisdiction, and the action of the same officer in determining upon a general line of public policy. To the former the doctrines of "stare decisis" and "res adjudicata" apply; to the latter they do not. If it were not so, and if the head of a great department were to be considered bound *in matters of policy* by the action of his predecessors, popular elections would have very little significance. New executive machinery would have to move in the grooves cut by the old.

Unless the Secretary has *reversed* a *decision* rendered by one of his predecessors during the pendency of the withdrawals, upon some case arising under a particular selection made by the railroad company; unless he has cancelled some patent, recalled the approval of some list, or has otherwise reheard or reviewed a case heard, determined, and finally adjudicated by one of his predecessors, he is entirely beyond the reach of legal criticism, so far as the doctrines we are considering are concerned. Your statement of the decision itself satisfies me that all the rights acquired in the past under the withdrawals have been carefully guarded and saved, so that in this

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important action the Secretary has not departed from any principle of law involved in the decisions of his predecessors.

That an executive officer may accept counsel and suggestion from the principles which lie behind "stare decisis" and "res adjudicata," need hardly be asserted. A vacillating policy is always to be condemned. Frequent changes in the policy of the Interior Department, for instance, cannot be made without disturbing important interests. The establishment of Indian and military reservations, their enlargement, reduction, or the removal of the land embraced within them from a state of reservation, are matters of executive policy somewhat similar to the one under discussion, and action taken upon them often affects values. The Secretary is not, however, for that reason to hesitate in recommending an order for creating such reservations when needed, or revoking an order of one of his predecessors on the subject, when the necessity for such reservation has passed away. Whether the time has come for action of this kind in any particular case, is a matter resting solely within that discretion which is the highest trust conferred upon an executive officer, and which cannot be taken away by the salutary and well-established doctrines of "res adjudicata" and "stare decisis." Upon this ground, therefore, I agree with you that "it is within his discretion to revoke the withdrawal, if satisfied that the public interests require such revocation."

Respectfully, S. A. CHAMPION.

LITTLETON, N. H., September 3, 1887.

GRAND ARMY PATRIOTISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "It strikes me" that in certain claims of the G. A. R. there is an element of almost ludicrous incongruity. These men are of the bone and sinew of the country, yet many of them are unable to earn a competence; they entered the army from motives of pure patriotism, yet desire to be paid for their services; these services were of priceless value, but if Congress will grant them eight dollars a month, they will "call it square." Verily, "we the people of the United States" have improved upon the old-time idea of a patriot. Compared with these modern representatives of the species, our old school friend Cincinnatus is nowhere. R. F. F.

KEATS'S NIGHTINGALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If I may venture a word about the "logic" of Keats's "Ode to a Nightingale," I would say that it seems to me very clear Keats makes the individual stand for *mankind* and the bird represent the *type*. For his sorrows are common to all men. He is but one of a race of sufferers depicted in the lines: "Here, where men sit and hear each other groan"; where "gray hairs" are "palsy" shaken; where "youth" grows "pale," and "beauty cannot keep her lustrous eyes." And he indicates, where he recalls "the *sad heart* of Ruth," and speaks of the ancient "emperor," that the race has ever been stricken with heart-achings.

Then, the bird is addressed in some lines, it is true, as the type, but oftener as the individual (to wit, in the first stanzas, and in the last lines of the poem); while it should by no means be forgotten that the Ode is to *a* Nightingale, and not to *the* Nightingale.

The woes of mankind are thus typified in the woes of the individual, who is appealing to the joyous songster representing a joyous type. The unhappy man, of a type, cries out to the happy bird, of a type.

If my understanding of this is correct, Mr. Colvin's "breach of logic," with its unpleasant consequences, is obviously inapposite, and the difficulties which your reviewer and correspondent seek to dispose of are at once swept away.

Very respectfully, S. O. HENRY.

DENVER, COL., August 30, 1887.

DIALECT IN FICTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can you tell me why of late all our novelists wrap up their sentiment or their sarcasm in the dialect of the uneducated?

Of old, a book was not supposed to be properly ushered into the world without a dedication to some one higher in social position than the writer. Now, the great requisite seems to be a perfect mastery of the speech of those in the lowest ranks of life. There is a disposition in our schools and colleges to give more attention to the English tongue, and to make time for its-fuller study by giving up the study of the classics; but in our hours of recreation we are compelled to read the prattle of the nursery, the slang of the college, the ungrammatical English of the shopgirl and the factory hand, the dialect of the creole and the negro, and the reproduction of the imperfect enunciation of the South or of the Plains.

It is true that ideal characters and noble lives may be found among both the "masses" and the "classes"; but it is the character and the life that are admirable, and to which attention should be directed, not the forms of speech that are peculiar to the "masses." Can you not suggest to our writers of fiction that the study of dialect belongs to the philologist, and the use of it to the illiterate? If their pathos and their wit and their wisdom will not bear coining into clear and vigorous English, it is counterfeit, and should not be current in our magazines and circulating libraries. M. N. S.

Notes.

THE new Thackeray letters are to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons in a limited large-paper edition of 500 copies, with the portraits, drawings, facsimiles; as well as in an octavo form. The same house announce 'The Science of Thought,' by Prof. Max Müller; a new edition, with portrait, of ex-President Woolsey's 'Religion of the Present and of the Future'; and 'The Bee-Man of Orn, and Other Fanciful Tales,' by Frank R. Stockton.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'Modern Italian Poets,' with translations and portrait illustrations, by W. D. Howells; and a translation of Désiré Charnay's 'Ancient Cities of the New World.'

'Fifty Years of English Song,' namely, during the Victorian era, is the title of a poetical collection by Henry F. Randolph in preparation by A. D. F. Randolph & Co. They will also soon issue in three volumes a luxurious edition of Dean Stanley's 'Historical Memorials of Westminster Abbey.'

Among the art books of the year, Lee & Shepard promise 'A Bunch of Violets,' by Miss Irene E. Jerome of Chicago.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, issue directly 'An Operetta in Profile,' by Czeika. Their fall list includes a number of novels—'Love and Theology,' by Celia Parker Woolley; 'Fools of Nature' (with a slant at Spiritualism); 'Juan and Juanita,' by Frances Courtenay Baylor; 'The Story of an Enthusiast Told by Himself,' by Mrs. C. V. Jamison; and a new edition of 'Geraldine: a Tale of the St. Lawrence,' illustrated for the holiday season. We note also an expurgated Rabelais for the young, 'Three Good Giants,' with Doré's illustrations; 'Under Pine and Palm,' poems by Mrs. Frances L. Mace; 'The Bhagavad Gîtâ,' translated with a commentary by Mohini M. Chatterji; 'Music in the 18th Century,' collected and edited by Henry M. Brooks; 'The New Astronomy,' by Prof. S. P. Langley, illustrated; 'A History of the Secession War,' by Rossiter Johnson, in one volume; 'Sobriquets and Nicknames,' by Alfred R. Frey; the Poetical Works of Walter Scott, edited with especial care and annotated by W. J. Rolfe; and the songs, 'My Old Kentucky Home' and 'The Swanee River,' by Stephen Collins Foster, illustrated and converted into gift-books.

Two novels—'A Village Maid,' by Helen Hays, and 'Inchfawn,' by L. T. Meade—are shortly to be brought out by Thomas Whittaker, along with a treatise on 'The Doctrine of Morality,' by Dr. Fairbairn, Warden of St. Stephen's College.

The fall announcements of W. R. Jenkins include, besides the remaining volumes of 'Les Misérables,' the following: Victor Hugo's 'Hernani'; Alfred de Vigny's 'Cinq-Mars'; 'Contes tirés de Molière,' by A. M. Cotte; 'Mine et Contre-Mine,' by A. Guillet of Cleveland, "the first dramatic composition in French of any importance ever published in America"; and 'Una Notte Bizzarra,' by Antonio Barrili.

We ought to have mentioned last week in connection with our notice of the *Genealogical Queries*, that this publication may be had of Mr. R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I.

The Dante Society is able to state that the 'Concordance of the Divina Commedia' prepared by Prof. Edward Allen Fay of the National Deaf-Mute College, Washington, is now completed, and will be printed as rapidly as possible. The text followed is Witte's (Berlin, 1862), supplemented by the variants of the editions of Niccolini, Capponi, Borghi, and Becchi. The shorter and commoner pronouns and particles, and the more frequent forms of the verbs *avere* and *essere*, are left unsupplied with context and references, but are all inserted in their proper alphabetical place, with *sovente* attached. The form of the book will be octavo, and the bulk some 800 or 900 pages. The price will be $10, and subscriptions may be sent to Prof. Fay or to Mr. John Woodbury, 10 Tremont St., Boston; abroad to Trübner & Co., London.

One of the publications of the American Economic Association for this year is by Amos G. Warner, and is entitled 'Three Phases of Coöperation in the West.' The "phases" represent the attempts of farmers, of laborers, and of the Mormons to coöperate for various ends. The account of their many failures and few successes is of no especial interest to those who are not students of the subject, and to them only as laying a broader foundation of fact for the conclusions that have been already reached. Most of the enterprises described were nothing more than partnerships of many members, and made no provision for their employees sharing in the profits. The organization of mercantile business under the auspices of the Mormon Church is a phenomenon that deserves attention, and indicates great ability on the part of the Mormon rulers.

'Willem Usselinx' is the title of an extremely elaborate monograph by J. Franklin Jameson, published by the American Historical Association. Mr. Jameson describes his hero as the Lesseps of the seventeenth century, the founder of the Dutch and Swedish West India Companies, and the originator of two of our colonies—that upon the Hudson and that upon the Delaware. Usselinx was undoubtedly a most enthusiastic projector, but his ideas were of the wildest character, and he must be compared with the Lesseps of the Panama, not of the Suez, Canal. As Mr. Jameson shows that Usselinx condemned the

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plan of establishing a colony in Virginia, which embraced the region of the Hudson, it seems rather strained to call him the originator of that colony. Nor do we see that he deserves the credit of founding the Dutch West India Company, whatever that credit may be, for the charter was not such as he desired, and there was no novelty then in the idea of forming companies for foreign trade. Usselinx lost all his property very early in life, and spent his remaining years in pressing his absurd schemes upon kings and parliaments, and begging for grants of money to enable him to continue his tiresome labors. His part in the events of the times seems to us, upon Mr. Jameson's own showing, a very small one.

Mr. Edward P. Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania is the author of an interesting essay upon a most interesting subject—the anti-rent agitation in New York between 1839 and 1846. He shows that the policy of the colonial governments was to establish a landed aristocracy in that State, and gives a list of the vast domains that were held and leased upon semi-feudal tenures. This aristocracy was supported, however, neither by the prestige of antiquity and high birth, nor by the spirit of the laws. The Legislature and the courts, as well as the common people, were not in sympathy with their claims; and although their legal rights were recognized and forcible resistance to them was promptly put down, yet the landlords eventually yielded to public opinion and allowed their tenants to become owners in fee. The subject deserves a broader treatment than Mr. Cheyney has given it, and he might well use his materials in the preparation of a more considerable volume.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' (H. V. & H. W. Poor) for 1887 has just been issued, and takes the twentieth place in an invaluable series. Its summary shows the total length of track laid up to the close of last year in this country to have been in round numbers 138,000 miles, of which 9,000 were laid in 1886. A cheerful view is taken of the results of the year's transactions in this field. The Inter-State Commerce Act is printed in full.

"Fisherman among Fishermen" is an added title to the many which have attached themselves to the Father of his Country. Mr. George H. Moore of the Lenox Library bestows it in his pleasant preface to a privately printed monograph of fifteen pages, 'Washington as an Angler.' Preface we have called it, but it is formally a letter to President Cleveland, the last President of the Republic's first century, and a lover of angling like the first President. "I trust," concludes Mr. Moore, in happy non-commital phraseology, not exclusive of a second term, "that the beginning of the new era will find as good a fisherman as you are in office." What Mr. Moore has done is to extract from Washington's unpublished diaries for July 30—August 5, 1787, entries of his joining fishing parties near Valley Forge and near Trenton during the recess of the Constitutional Convention. Another extract for November 2, 1789, records his cod-fishing off Portsmouth, N. H. Presumably, as Mr. Moore is a close gleaner, there is nothing more to be learned from Washington himself about his love of the sport, but his companions, it is suggested, may have left some undiscovered relation of his part in the above excursions, all of which (as Lexington was visited on the last) had a grave historic interest for the great captain of the Revolution.

An autobiographic sketch of the adventurer Casanova forms part of the unpublished fragments of his literary remains which M. Uzanne begins editing in *Le Livre* for August. The same writer makes what he calls literary zigzags across the works of Honoré Balzac, two portraits of whom form the decoration of this number. Though less than a decade later in time, there is an extraordinary vulgarization in the second portrait, in which the long hair has been clipped; and one might stamp it Realism and its predecessor Romanticism. M. Uzanne cites a little-known table prepared by Balzac for one of the earlier editions of 'Père Goriot,' in answer to certain critics, enumerating in one class the virtuous and in another the criminal women among the creations of his fancy. Drawing them up "in order of battle," he finds himself "rich" in thirty-six of the former, and "poor" in only twenty of the latter. Of most enduring value is M. Arthur Pougin's paper on the Archives and Library of the Opéra. The Archives contain amid much else a pretty complete assortment of the Opéra's posters from 1803, and the entire archives of the old Comédie Italienne (1716-1852). The Library is of very recent formation, but embraces upwards of 10,000 books and pamphlets and 70,000 engravings; also a collection of the original designs for the 200 operas or ballets executed since 1803—a remarkable source for the study of costume, which has been augmented by acquisitions relating to the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Orchestra scores from Lulli to Gluck number 179. The Museum of the Opéra, again, abounds in curious objects—miniature set scenes, busts, autographs, etc., etc.

The well-known traveller, M. Ed. Planchut, contributes to the *Revue Scientifique* for August 20 an interesting study of the native inhabitants of Luzon, the largest and most important of the Philippine Islands. They are divided into two races, the negritos and the savages, altogether comprising some fifteen tribes more or less distinct in type and costume. The negritos, supposed to be the aborigines, are dwarfs, averaging about four and a half feet in height, but are well formed. Huts or villages are unknown among them, but they sleep where night finds them. They appear to be entirely devoid of a religious faculty, having neither idol nor amulet. Their strongest characteristic is their love of freedom. When one of their number dies they attribute it to some evil influence, and avenge the dead by killing some person of another race, and are constantly at war among themselves and with the savages. These differ in most respects from the negritos. Their toes are very far apart, and are used like fingers, they being able to pick up the smallest thing with them. Some have even been seen to descend a tree head foremost, using their hands and feet like a monkey. They have all some idea of a supreme being, one tribe worshipping a god who had two sons and two daughters, from whom descended the human race. They deify such things as the rain, powder, the metals, and certain trees, as well as truth and noble deeds. They have bad spirits also, as darkness, lying, and some diseases; but neither good nor bad have any sacred places. "What need of temples," say they, "for beings who fear neither wind, sun, nor rain?" They chafe under the Spanish yoke, and praise the apes for their cunning, saying, "They do not speak for fear of being obliged to pay taxes."

Poe's tale, 'The Fall of the House of Usher,' is as undramatic as anything can be; but in a recent *chronique théâtrale* of M. Sarcey's, in the Paris *Temps*, a list is given of the plays to be acted at the Théâtre Libre, founded not long ago by a club of theatrical enthusiasts, and on this list we find "La Chute de la maison Usher," conte fantastique adapté au théâtre, d'après Edgar Poë, par MM. Oscar Méténier et Arthur Byl.

'Le Prophète des Montagnes fumeuses, nouvelle américaine d'Egbert Craddoch (*sic*), adaptée de l'anglais par Jane de Vaudelin,' has just been published in Paris by Firmin Didot.

M. J. J. Jusserand has just republished (Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof) the essay which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1, 'Le Roman au temps de Shakespeare.' The present volume is enlarged and developed from the article in the *Revue* by about one-fourth, and corrected and improved by innumerable little touches throughout. The author tells us that his book contains the substance of the earlier lectures in a course on the history of the English novel before Walter Scott, which he delivered last year at the Collège de France as the substitute for the Professor of Languages and Literatures of Germanic Origin, M. Guillaume Guizot, whom he calls the principal promoter, with M. Taine, of English studies in France. The book is well worth reading for what it contains, and also for the impression made upon a very intelligent Frenchman, remarkably well read in his subject, by the writers and the literary period immediately preceding Shakspere. M. Jusserand has already published two other volumes upon English subjects which have attracted favorable notice—in 1878, when he was only twenty-three years old, 'Le Théâtre en Angleterre depuis le conquête jusqu'aux prédécesseurs immédiates de Shakespeare,' and in 1884, 'Les Anglais au moyen âge; la vie nomade et les routes d'Angleterre au xiie siècle.' He is also charged with the supervision of Hachette's new series of essays upon the great writers of France.

In the August number of the *Educador Práctico Ilustrado* of Mexico, Señor Ezequiel A. Chavez has a descriptive critique of the statue of Cuauhtemoc, the last addition to the sculptured ornaments of the Paseo de la Reforma. Leopards of bronze stand on four sides of the octagonal plot surrounding the pedestal, which is composed of three blocks of the beautiful Puebla marble, narrowing one above the other, and bearing several symbolic figures and inscriptions. The statue itself is of bronze, as faithful a reproduction of Aztec physiognomy and dress as possible. The feathered head-dress of his tribe rests upon the hero's brows; he wears the breastplate of serpent's scales, and a mantle hangs from his left shoulder. His sandals are of gold, and he stands brandishing a dart in his right hand, while in his left he is crushing a document supposed to be a demand for surrender. On the face of the first block of the pedestal are inscribed the words, "To the memory of Cuauhtemoc and the warriors who fought heroically in defence of their country, 1521." The whole has a height of eighteen metres, and must be worthy of a place in the magnificent avenue where the figures of Carlos IV. and Columbus already stand, and where Hidalgo and Morelos are yet to appear. The statue was modelled by M. Noreña and cast by J. Contreras.

—The *Century* for September is substantially a magazine of American history. The Life of Lincoln and the current war papers—in this number the interesting episode of the battle of the Crater at Petersburg—take up their full share of space; and the approaching celebration of the completion of the work of the Convention that framed the Constitution, gives occasion to Mr. J. B. McMaster to sketch the men who were the makers of that instrument, and to outline the conflict of interest and ideas which was fought out in their debates. Besides these papers, the leading article is upon Monticello and Thomas Jefferson, and in the concluding pages of the number are short discussions of some phases of the history and working of the Constitution, in which one contributor argues for further extension of national power over the citizens, such as replacing State by national courts, and the other, Mr. Eggleston, argues, on the other side, the case for local autonomy, especially with reference to such matters as prohibitory and labor legislation. The latter remarks pithily, and the sentence contains his whole thought, that "civil-

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izing work must in the main be done locally." The editor in his own person makes the inquiry, What effect would it have had upon the framers of the Constitution if they had known the extent, population, and business of the country to-day? But he puts it only to draw the moral that a nation's work is to legislate for its own times and necessities, and to acknowledge that the course of human events outruns the forecast of the wisest statesmen. The state of our Government to-day affords a singular test of the political intellect, and illustrates in a remarkable way the uncertainty of its previsions. The framers gave the country a mode of government which has proved permanent, but one cannot read their debates without being struck by the unexpected way in which time dealt with many of their fears, precautions, and animosities, both in the speculative and concrete regions of thought.

—*Scribner's* also contributes something to the centenary of the signing of the Constitution. Mr. Moncure D. Conway, who has been engaged on a Life of Edmund Randolph, has discovered the unpublished draft of a National Constitution, which represents Randolph's views of what was best as a scheme for the new government about to be established. It is a document of considerable historical interest, especially as it was worked upon in the Convention, and bears the interlineations and notes then written. The peculiar features it possesses must be looked at in the text, as an abstract is impossible. The more interesting articles in this number, however, are neither historical nor literary, but sketches of travel. There are two of these, one detailing the old story of the passage up the Nile, the other describing some of the hunting grounds in the Shoshone, with episodes of hunters' adventures, and advice about ways and means of sport in that country. The author finds much fault with the Government maps, and also with the slowness of Government exploration in the Yellowstone; the distant danger he sees is, that the Indians might rise and gain these fastnesses, whence they could long wage war and inflict great damage, while the army would be practically ignorant of the country. He gives also, though with modesty, his opinion that the species of bear are not so many as are commonly counted, but that nearly all the bear ranging the Rockies occasionally breed together, and hence arise their varieties. The cinnamon bear he would regard as a coarser and larger brown bear, resulting from a cross between grizzly and brown; and he would account for the silver-tip and roachback in similar ways. The whole paper is of great interest to sportsmen. Of the poetry of the number, less would have been a boon.

—The latest volume of the Archives of Maryland, edited by Dr. Wm. Hand Browne and Miss Harrison, embraces the judicial and testamentary business of the Provincial Court from 1637 to 1650 inclusive, with a gap in the forties. The curious interest of such a record is well indicated in the preface and prefatory notes, where attention is called, for one thing, to the singular absence of crimes of violence, at this epoch before slavery had become general. We have the first known reference to the importation of negroes, in 1642; and the first mention of a sale of them, in 1644. White apprenticeship figures largely, sometimes in fugitive cases or abductions; and the inventory of William Smith's estate in 1638 rates a manservant for two and a half years at £3, and three cows at £24. Roanoke (wampum) was a common currency. The standard, of course, was tobacco, and Elias Beach valued his servant at 500 lbs. In March, 1638, a planter binds himself in 1,000 weight of merchantable tobacco, in case he "the said William Edwin hath precontracted himselfe to any other woman other then mary whitehead spinister." The inventories give a lively sense both of the mode and of the poverty of living. "A piece of a broken Harry Angell"—*i. e.*, a coin of Henry VII. or Henry VIII., with the figure of St. Michael on the obverse—is one item. Doubtful assets are "a flich of bacon & a hogg eaten by the souldiers," with "more hoggs in the woods." These seem to belong almost in the category of "debts desperate" (as distinguished from "debts sperate"). Hogs in the woods were responsible for much of the litigation registered in this volume. Books were rare property, and conspicuous for the number of them is the inventory of one Adams's estate in 1642, with its "one testament, one small book of presidents, two small books in French, one book of dispute concerning religion."

—The executor of John Lewger put in his claim for an allowance of thirty pounds of tobacco "for hottwaters &c. spent at his buriall"—the said hot waters being, presumably, something stronger than "beareager" (analogue of *vin*egar). One finds not a few such odd or quaint words in very arbitrary orthography. We read of a "heighfer . . . marked with a flower-de-lewis in each yeare." And the succeeding passage is doubly curious, for its phraseology and for its trace of the old legal ascription of total depravity to inanimate objects as well as to brute animals. An inquest on the body of a planter, January 31, 1637, showed that "by the fall of a tree [he] had his bloud bulke broken." "And further the Jurors aforesaid vpon their oath aforesaid say that the said tree moved to the death of the said John Bryant; & therefore find the said tree forfeited to the Lord Proprietor." In the little unpleasantness between J. Cloughton, mariner, and A. Cotton, the former averred of the latter that he "did vse these or the like words, that if he (innuendo the said Anthony Cotton) had pleased he might have had him (innuendo the said James Cloughton) whippt at virginea." The suit, June 2, 1649, of Robert Robins against Raphe Beane did not prosper, "being for Tob: wch hee alleadged was wonne at Play. This Court doth not thinke fitt to give the plte any releife herein but dismisseth the same." And so we might go on, without touching matters historical in the time of Claiborne.

—Every number of the 'New English Dictionary' will be to Shaksperians worth the cost of the whole work. It will throw a thousand side-lights on Shakspere's language which they have always longed for but could never hope to behold. How much of our vocabulary and its significance can be traced back no further than the great dramatist, will be revealed so clearly that he who runneth may read. Something of this disclosure may be seen in any fraction of the stupendous work. Turning over the first two hundred pages of the first number, it will be ascertained that one hundred and forty-six words are first found in Shakspere, either altogether or in some of their meanings. At this rate our total indebtedness cannot be less than for seven thousand Shaksperian words or meanings. Rome owed only one word to Julius Cæsar. The nature of our debt will be more apparent if we examine some of these hundred and a half of Shaksperian words, all so near the beginning of the alphabet that the last of them is "air." We owe the poet the first use of the word "air" itself in one of its senses as a noun, and in three as a verb or participle. He first said "air-drawn," and "airless." He added a new signification to "airy" and "aerial." Nobody before him had written "aired," and more than a tithe of the verbal gifts now in view were such perfect participles. Well-nigh as many were adverbs. In no previous writer have Dr. Murray's Argus eyes detected "accidentally," nor any of the following — "abjectly," "acutely," "admiringly," "adoptedly," "adversely." How our fathers could exist so long without some of these vocables must move our special wonder. To "absolutely," "accordingly," "actively," and "affectionately" Shakspere added a new sense. It is not a little surprising that the word "abreast" was never printed before the couplet,

> "My soul shall thine keep company to heaven;
> Tarry, sweet soul, for mine, then fly *abreast*."

Of the one hundred and forty-six words and meanings first given us by Shakspere at least two-thirds are of classical origin. Baconians will say that such a gift could not by any possibility come from a man of "small Latin and less Greek." Others will enlarge their ideas of what Ben Jonson meant by "small." The strangest thing seems to be that so few of Shakspere's innovations—not so much as one-fifth—have become obsolete. He gave them not only life but immortality. It is perhaps equally noteworthy that while he was never read so much as to-day, no writer before him (and scarcely one of his contemporaries) cited as authors of words and senses is now read at all, save by special students.

—The question, "Where did Shakspere get his novelties in language?" who can answer? His "accoutred" was in print ten years before any other writer gives us any form of this verb, which it is agreed comes from Latin through French. The noun "accoutrement" was earlier, but only in rare books. In one instance Shakspere is erroneously said to show the earliest specimen of a certain meaning. "Act," as one of the main divisions in a dramatic work, is credited to Shakspere in 1613. But this word is in the Epilogue of "Henry VIII.," which, downward from Dr. Johnson, has not been regarded as Shakspere's work in any line of it. In no one of the Shaksperian dramas as published in the author's lifetime is there any division into "acts" at all. The quarto of the "Merry Wives," published three years after the author's death, shows no acts or scenes. In the first folio, published seven years after his death, the modern separation into parts occurs. It is indicated, however, only by Latin words, as *actus primus, secundus*, etc. Our indisputable Shaksperian debts are too great to need any doubtful additions. In one case, however, Dr. Murray fails to render to Shakspere his due. Regarding Adonis in Greek mythology, his first citation dates from 1765. He forgot this line in "Henry VI.":

> "Thy promises are like Adonis' gardens,"

as well as "Fetch thee straight Adonis," in "Taming the Shrew."

—The August number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Charles Scribner's Sons) contains a few pages by M. Ernest Renan which will be added, a note informs us, in future editions of his 'Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse,' to what he says there of his little playmate, Noémi. It is only a fragment in the review, but, read in connection with the chapter to which it belongs, it is one of the most characteristic passages of his recollections. Like all that he writes, its meaning is evanescent, shifting, complicated, opening out dimly seen depths beyond depths of possibilities, which are realities or shadows in turn or at the same time; for, however the presentation of his ideal may sometimes betray him, M. Renan is before everything else a poet and an idealist. The number contains a paper by the editor, M. Frédéric Masson, "Deux romans de Lucien Bonaparte," the latter part of which he devotes to the now forgotten romance, 'La Tribu indienne, ou Édouard et Stellina,' published in two small volumes in 1799 by the brother of the great Napoleon, then twenty-four years old. Lucien had ordered of Prudhon ten designs to illustrate the ten books of his romance. Three of these are given in *Les*

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Lettres et les Arts—one, reproduced from the original design of Prudhon, as the frontispiece of the number; the other two, from the engravings of the volumes, on a page side by side. M. Masson gives minute and most interesting details about these rare designs and engravings; about the story itself; about the two charming women to either one of whom the dedication may have been addressed, whom the young author calls "mon Éléonore," and whom M. Masson proves to have been his wife, Catherine or Christine Éléonore Boyer, who died the following year, and not Mme. Récamier, to whom Lucien paid assiduous court during this same year, and to whom he wrote, not without response, certain very youthful and very ardent letters, which her admirers of after years, Chateaubriand and Benjamin Constant, read and wrote about. All this is made very interesting indeed, but it is not one of the "deux romans" of the title. What gives the article its great interest, and also its unity and beauty as a piece of literary work, is the connection M. Masson indicates so lightly and so skilfully of the above with the second marriage of Lucien to Alexandrine de Bleschamps, whom he first knew three years after this period, in 1802. For her sake he dared, unlike his brothers, to brave the anger of the Emperor, and did not hesitate to reject an offered crown, preferring exile and obscurity with her to a throne which she could not share. There is an attractive portrait of Lucien at the head of the paper; and full-page pictures of his first wife and of Mme. Récamier—the last from the well-known painting by Louis David, in the classical undress of the period. This number also contains a paper by Vernon Lee called "Voix maudite," very fantastic in conception, but exasperatingly long and discursive in execution, in which the author forgets at intervals that her Scandinavian musician is not a painter, or a very modern writer of æsthetic English prose; but which, with all its failings, is so nearly good that one would like to lay some blame on a translator, only that it is said to be written in French by the author herself. "Pension d'étrangers" is a Genevese story by M. Édouard Rod, in which this sombre writer is lighter and less pessimistic than usual. The first of M. Pierre de Nolhac's Versailles papers, "Le Grand Trianon," appears—well written and interesting, and fully illustrated with reproductions of contemporary paintings and engravings. The number, like the last, is an unusually good one.

—For some time past Émile Zola has been publishing in *Gil Blas* the new story of his Rougon-Macquart series, 'La Terre.' The conspiracy of silence in regard to it which seems to have extended through the whole Paris press, has suddenly been brought to an end in a violent manifesto, signed by some of the young naturalistic writers who called themselves his disciples. This was published in the *Figaro* for August 18, and reproduced in part by most of the papers of the next day, glad, apparently, to join in the protest without themselves entering too deeply into the mire of the discussion, which naturally has many unsavory details. The manifesto itself would be of less consequence if it were not for the approbation with which it has been received, and the importance given to it by the attention of the most serious of the daily papers. It is a cry of indignation and revolt at the continued aberrations of the "Master"; at the increasing exacerbation of the *note ordurière* in his last work, With a truly Zolaesque brutality of expression, these *lévites déçus* protest against the authority of the high priest of naturalism. They accuse Zola of a lack of artistic sincerity in his latest work; of a failure to observe the realities of which he makes a fantastic picture from second-hand materials and from his own imagination, which they call an "imposture de la littérature véridique"; they reproach him for his "bonshommes de rhétorique zoliste, dénués de complication" and flung, in clumsy masses, into a country half seen through the windows of an express train; for his incrediole indolence in "l'expérimentation personnelle"; for his "documents de pacotille, ramassés par des tiers, pleins d'une enflure hugolique." With all the energy of young writers eager to defend their own work against a possible assimilation with the "irrémédiable dépravation morbide" of the great man whom they have too fervently admired, they end their declaration of revolt with a protest against this "littérature sans noblesse" in the name of their own ambitions, "saines et viriles," of their "adoration, of their profound love, of their supreme respect for art." This is signed by Paul Bonnetain, J. H. Rosny, Lucien Descaves, Paul Margueritte, Gustave Guiches. They are all young writers and young men, the oldest of them not yet thirty and some of them much younger; M. Gustave Guiches published the first of his two really remarkable novels less than a year ago. They all have decided power and promise as writers and a certain amount of literary reputation, not in every case of the most desirable kind in regard to their earlier books, a healthy repentance for which possibly adds to the vigor of their energetic repudiation of the worst tendencies of Zola and his followers, from which all their present work at least is entirely free.

—Zola is always ready to attack any opponent who may present himself, and to assert his own literary inviolability with passion. It will be interesting to hear the thunders he will hurl at his revolted disciples, and at the journalists who have commented upon their manifesto, and who at last have given expression to the general reprobation of his latest work. They have recalled to him that, scarcely ten years ago, when 'L'Assommoir' was appearing in the *Bien Public*, that paper was obliged to break off the publication in the midst of the story, on account of the constantly increasing dissatisfaction of its readers; that though later he found another paper, more free from prejudices, which gave 'Nana' to the end, this very paper has just sacrificed to the resistance of its subscribers a *feuilleton* in course of publication, declaring that what had already appeared and been the cause of such violent protests was veritable rose-water compared to what remained in manuscript, and that it was absolutely impossible to go on with it. It is doubtful whether Zola will draw the desired conclusion that the public, which he has done so much to educate, is becoming more easily shocked by the offences which passed with comparative readiness a few years ago; but the fact seems to be so. Zola delights in subjugating a resisting public. It remains to be seen whether the present revolt will be the occasion for another victory upon his part, or the forerunner of a more healthy and a more truthful naturalism.

LORD SHAFTESBURY.

I.—HIS CHARACTER.

The Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, K.G. By Edwin Hodder. 3 vols. Cassell & Co.

"One who wears a coronet—and prays."

THIS line of Cowper's eulogizes and satirizes the one Peer who lent the dignity of rank to the early Evangelical revival; it paints, also, the last English nobleman who will be termed by others, as he was by himself, "an Evangelical of the Evangelicals."

Lord Shaftesbury, in spirit no less than in fact, "wore a coronet." He "possesses," writes an observer in 1838, "the palest, purest, stateliest exterior of any man you will see in a month's perambulation of Westminster. It would be difficult to imagine a more complete *beau-idéal* of aristocracy. I believe his character quite corresponds with his appearance." The words "*beau-idéal* of aristocracy" hit off Lord Shaftesbury's likeness as closely as it is possible for a few words to paint a human being. Descended from a line of distinguished ancestors, he was by birth, by breeding, by every inherited trait, an English Peer; and an English Peer, moreover, inheriting traditions handed down from a period when the hereditary members of the House of Lords formed in reality the first estate of the realm. Neither his special and eminent greatness, nor his defects, can be appreciated at their right value unless the qualities be noted which, bad as well as good, came to him by birth. Lord Shaftesbury's earnest wish was that any literary portrait made of him should express the whole truth and nothing but the truth; and reverence for a good man who in his generation rendered noble service to mankind, makes it a duty to note the defects or limitations impressed upon his character by his position. High lineage, no less than obscure descent, has its disadvantages; and no candid reader of Lord Shaftesbury's biography can fail to see that an ideal aristocrat must of necessity inherit aristocratic deficiencies.

At the basis of his character lies a quality which, though closely connected with the highest virtues, is in itself a defect. It is difficult to find the exact word for a fault which it would be an exaggeration to call a vice. The term which perhaps most nearly defines it is "rigidity." Lord Shaftesbury was utterly wanting in flexibility. There is nothing in him of intellectual subtleness or versatility. Impressions once made upon his mind seem to have been indelible. But his nature at least was not easily impressible. There is not a trace throughout his copious diaries of the play of thought. He possessed a sound practical judgment; he had in him many elements of a statesman. But, as is often the case with men eminent in statesmanship, his reflections are worth much less than his acts. He passed, it should be noted, through a training which, whatever its demerits, has certainly been most effective in the moulding of character. He was an Oxford First-Class man; yet it requires almost an effort of faith to believe that he was ever at Oxford. The education which has left indelible traces on the minds, not to say on the natures, of Newman, of Arnold, and of Gladstone, hardly touched the character of Lord Shaftesbury. His tastes, no less than his principles, seem almost enough to prove that he graduated at Cambridge and heard every sermon of Simeon's. Aristocratic polish, combined with Evangelical strictness, resisted every influence of Oxford origin. Neither history nor metaphysics, but mathematics and astronomy, were the forms of scientific speculation which possessed an attraction for Lord Shaftesbury's intellect. Stiffness of mind is traceable even in his purely political opinions. To no subject connected with the Constitution did he give more thought than to the position of the House of Lords. Yet when a statesman as aristocratic as Lord Palmerston perceived what Bagehot has termed the "inestimable and unprecedented opportunity" of reforming the House of Lords without agitation, Lord Shaftesbury pronounced off-hand that the creation of life Peers was "a step as pernicious as it is specious," and foreboded that it "would end by making us the American Senate." And here, be it noted, we have a singular specimen of confident ignorance; for, to give the House of Lords the position of the Senate, would be to make it the most powerful body in the state. In truth, throughout Lord Shaftesbury's career, his aristocratic stiffness is seen to be closely connected with aris-

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tocratic self-confidence. This fact should be observed, because it explains the least amiable side of his character. From youth up, he occupies quite unconsciously the attitude of a censor. The Duke, Peel, Russell, Palmerston, Gladstone, the Bishops, his Puseyite opponents, his Low-Church friends, all and each fall under his lash. Mr. Hodder gives us an example of the manner in which his Lordship could "rebuke" a clergyman: the one specimen exhibits a good deal more of aristocratic severity than of noble courtesy.

If, however, Lord Shaftesbury exhibited the failings, he displayed all the high virtues of an English nobleman—and very high virtues they are—in their best form. The self-consciousness and self-condemnation to be found in his diaries cannot conceal from any intelligent reader that he was endowed with the gifts of leadership. It is impossible, indeed, not to fancy that the seventh Earl had inherited from the first much of the restless energy ascribed by Dryden to Ahithophel. He assuredly showed an intensity of public spirit which no one can fairly ascribe to the first Lord Shaftesbury, but which has been the noblest quality of the English nobility. The gentry in all their ranks were for centuries the leaders of England; they made good their claim to leadership by the zeal and capacity with which they discharged ill-remunerated or unpaid public service. Lord Shaftesbury's whole life was spent in the performance of labors which benefited the State while they entailed loss upon himself. No statesman in office was so active a legislator. He remodelled the trade legislation of the country; he reformed and he administered the lunacy laws; he inaugurated and carried out a system of sanitary legislation; he extended, or attempted to extend, the protection of law and of feeling over all persons who could not adequately protect themselves; he worked in Parliament as hard as a Minister without attaining office, and he worked in Government boards far harder than a civil servant without receiving a civil servant's pay. His direct political or legislative employments were, moreover, but a part of the toils in which his life was spent. A list of three hundred and odd societies, religious, moral, or philanthropic, with which Lord Shaftesbury was connected, gives some faint idea of his multifarious energy. He was not a man to connect himself with institutions to which he gave merely nominal assistance. Many of the associations to which he lent his name were his own creation. In many others he was the guiding spirit. With none was his connection merely nominal.

While he was guiding the benevolent labors of thousands, he was, be it remembered, something like the head of the most active among English religious parties. The fostering of what he deemed the truth; the active opposition of what he deemed error; the constant supervision of ecclesiastical policy, might fairly have been described as the occupation of his life, had it not, in fact, been one among a hundred other occupations. With the results of his laborious energy we are not at this moment concerned; the point which deserves pressing home upon every man's attention is the vastness of the load of work taken by Lord Shaftesbury on his shoulders, and the pure public spirit which compelled him to turn his life into a life of gratuitous toil. Public spirit is, though the most conspicuous, not at bottom the highest of aristocratic virtues. Bold frankness and a love of justice are the merits which, as every one feels, belong of right to nobility. In the matter of intrepidity Lord Shaftesbury fell not a whit below the proverbial boldness of Lord Russell. No man ever spoke his mind with more plainness, not to say with more audacity. Study his correspondence with the French Emperor and with the Emperor's Minister. Lord Shaftesbury was convinced, and with good reason, that French Protestants did not enjoy religious freedom. M. Drouyn de Lhuys and Louis Napoleon attempted in vain to convince his Lordship that he was wrong. Lord Shaftesbury held firmly to his facts. Never was a crowned head so "tackled" by an uncrowned correspondent as Louis Napoleon by "your Majesty's very obedient servant, Shaftesbury." The plain truth is, that his Lordship's frankness was stimulated, in part at least, by the contempt of a highly descended Peer for an imperial parvenu. The solid foundation, however, of his firmness was his stern belief in justice. "Justice—*raw* justice—is the Shekinah of governments." The man who in youth wrote this sentiment down as the maxim of his life, had early imbibed the noblest of the ideas belonging to aristocratic rule, and was not likely to quake in later life before kings or emperors.

If Lord Shaftesbury wore a coronet, he also throughout life "prayed," and nothing would be more ridiculous than to consider the secular without also recognizing the religious side of his character. For fair criticism, the most important thing is to recognize the fact that Lord Shaftesbury's position and the inherited bias of his nature were closely linked with his religious attitude and convictions. The stiffness and unpliability which are noticeable throughout his public career, no less than in his private reflections on men and things, are discernible in his religious belief. When quite a child he received strong and lasting religious impressions. Religion came to him, as was natural during the first decade of this century, in the form of evangelical piety; and from the day when young Lord Ashley learned his first prayer at the knees of Maria Millis, down to the day when, three years ago, Lord Shaftesbury died "undisturbed by any fear of death, unshaken in faith, and in full assurance of hope," he remained, to use his own words, an Evangelical of the Evangelicals. He moved, as far as doctrine went, neither to the right hand nor to the left. The High Church revival, the speculative activity of the Broad Church, the enthusiasm of Dissent, the zeal of the Salvation Army, touched him not at all. "Despite all the changes of religious beliefs in others," writes Mr. Hodder, "he in 1878" [and the remark, we assume, applies to 1884] "not only stood firm in every opinion he held in 1838, but he held every shade or phase of these opinions." This we presume is meant for eulogy; it is in reality the bitterest censure. Mr. Hodder's words mean that the experience of forty years, and of forty years filled with moral, intellectual, and religious movement, taught his hero nothing whatever. Lord Shaftesbury towards the close of his life seems, it is true, to have perceived that for some reason or other the Evangelical party was losing its hold on the living world of English life. That influence must inevitably desert men whose greatest leader could learn nothing from forty years' experience, is clear enough to readers of Mr. Hodder's book, but probably never occurred to Lord Shaftesbury.

His extraordinary inaccessibility to new ideas explains his absolute deficiency in critical acumen. He was, according to his biographer, a good judge of men. That he possessed good common sense is apparent; but for his acuteness in appreciation of character, and, in truth, in criticism of any kind, we want better evidence than the verdict of biographical partiality. Of Mr. Maurice we find written in Lord Ashley's diary, "He is one of those who must be ranked according to old Fox's definition, as neither sound Protestant nor true Papist. . . . He once did excellent service in the cause of the Jerusalem Bishopric. This covers a multitude of sins. If it gives him pleasure or does him good to assail me, he is welcome." These words were written, it is true, when a teacher who in piety and goodness assuredly equalled, and in wisdom and in mental power infinitely surpassed, Lord Shaftesbury, was still known as "Mr. Maurice of Guy's Hospital." Lord Shaftesbury may later have changed his opinion about a man whom it was arrogance on his part to judge. But as things stand, the criticism is noteworthy as presumably the stupidest estimate ever put on record by an excellent man of another whose virtues and powers could not be appreciated by his critic. Lord Shaftesbury's judgment of Maurice can, for intellectual obtuseness, be paralleled, if at all, only by the description of 'Ecce Homo' as "the most pestilential book ever vomited forth from the jaws of hell." Of this statement Lord Shaftesbury did not repent. He considered the words "too strong for the world, but not too strong for the truth."

Just criticism of men or of literature is a power not promoted either by aristocratic training or by zealous religious dogmatism. Nor would Lord Shaftesbury's errors as a critic be of much moment but for two considerations. They explain in the first place the ease with which Lord Shaftesbury, like other practical men, looked upon the theological theories which he had imbibed, together with genuine spiritual convictions, as uncontrovertible facts which could be denied only by fools or knaves. That the belief in the verbal inspiration of Scriptures was at best a theory, and, in the opinion of far better judges than his Lordship, a theory irreconcilable with the plainest facts; that the doctrine of eternal punishment, of which, quaintly enough, he says, "If I maintain it I do not wish it," and which he "found revealed," was, in the judgment of theologians of far profounder knowledge than himself, neither revealed nor compatible with moral justice—were considerations which obtained no entrance into his mind. When he heard of any theological doctrine with which he did not agree, his simple course was to label it as either superstition or neologianism, and at once pronounce its condemnation. His mistakes as a critic, in the second place, explain a certain want of fineness even in religious feeling. By far the least admirable feature of Lord Shaftesbury's career is the scheme of church appointments adopted at his suggestion, or instigation, by Palmerston. The Evangelical leader saw only too plainly the immediate or apparent advantage to the "truth" of filling half the sees in England with sound Low Churchmen. The Premier saw the undoubted political gain of bribing with bishopries and livings the most influential of English religious parties. Of the two, Palmerston had the best of it; he obtained the support for which he paid. Lord Shaftesbury worked irreparable injury to the cause he meant to serve. The connection, moreover, between him and Palmerston presents on one side a tragic aspect. Lord Shaftesbury perceived the great and good sides of the Premier; he also perceived that Palmerston was not a "religious man," as Lord Shaftesbury would have generally defined that term. One can trace, in his account of Palmerston's death, the painful effort to reconcile his genuine and warranted belief in Palmerston's virtues with his theological theory that all these virtues were of no account in the eyes of the Deity. Truth is self-consistent; theological theories which do not square with the facts of life distract even the best of men, by involving them in the unconscious worship of inconsistent ideals.

If, however, theological dogmatism conceals from religious souls like Lord Shaftesbury's the reality of secular virtue, it is equally true that critics who are not in sympathy with the religious doctrines of men like him, immensely underrate the salutary effect of a religious faith which cannot fairly be estimated by the dogmatic forms in which it is more or less accidentally clothed.

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It were absolutely idle to deny that religious conviction gave to Lord Shaftesbury's life both its color and its depth. He had the virtues of an English Peer, but what distinguished him from other Peers who have greatly and nobly served the state, is the strength and reality of his faith. We may assume, if we like, that the so-called enthusiasm of humanity would, in the absence of dogmatic belief, have driven Lord Shaftesbury to a career of philanthropy. This assumption, however, is a mere hypothesis, and an hypothesis incapable of verification. Lord Shaftesbury would undoubtedly have attributed the labors of his life to the influence of religion. We may well accept his own view of his career. Pity for suffering and hatred of injustice were, no doubt, part of his natural disposition. Habits of benevolence at last made the service of man its own reward. But it may well be believed that nothing but firm belief in a definite religious creed would have turned an ambitious English nobleman into pursuits which imposed all the labors and promised none of the rewards held out by public life.

However this may be, two facts are well worthy of notice. The first of these is, that piety intensified all Lord Shaftesbury's natural virtues. Under its influence, manly independence expanded into absolute disinterestedness; public spirit developed into hatred of oppression; sensitiveness to suffering grew into active philanthropy; and the inflexibility which was near akin to an intellectual defect, conferred infinite benefit on the nation when it took the form of unyielding resistance to every form of wrong. Religion, in short, gave a new intensity to every quality of Lord Shaftesbury's nature. If some of his defects were rendered the more apparent, his virtues received an untold accession of strength. The second fact is, that Evangelicalism received, under the unconscious influence of Lord Shaftesbury, a new development. His religion was "practical" no less in the good than in the bad sense of that term. He had little gift for speculation, and it is greatly to be regretted that he had not even the capacity to perceive that he was not born for a thinker. But he saw with statesmanlike keenness the evils of society which a statesman might attempt to remove. He labored, no doubt, for the salvation of men's souls, but he perceived, with a clearness not given to many of his religious teachers, that physical misery was inconsistent with spiritual growth. He denied no doctrine which had been taught him by Wesley, by Cowper, by Romaine, or by any of the school from whom he had learnt his creed. He would have denounced indignantly and with perfect honesty the notion that he believed in the merit of "good works." Still, as a matter of fact, he imbibed, almost against his will, one idea of his age. His aim was to save men's souls, but he gave his whole heart and spirit to saving them from misery, from want, and from oppression during their present life. Religion took the form of enthusiasm for social reformation, and, by one of those practical paradoxes of which history is full, a Peer of ancient lineage, who, by the force both of pride and principle, was impelled to keep upon the old paths, became a great social revolutionist. Here, however, Lord Shaftesbury's character merges in his work. But to understand the work itself we must remember that it was done by a nobleman who might well be described as the last of the Tories and the last of the Evangelicals.

ADAMS'S PUBLIC DEBTS.—I.

Public Debts: an Essay in the Science of Finance. By Henry C. Adams, Ph.D., of the University of Michigan and Cornell University. D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

DR. ADAMS has rendered an important service in this painstaking treatise both to financial science in general and to American financial history in particular. The social, political, and industrial effects of public borrowing and of interest-paying are methodically unfolded. The mysteries and sophisms that have grown up like weeds about public debts are cleared away in language addressed to scholars, but not too recondite to be understood by any reader of fair education. The author has been classed, and, we suppose, fairly so, among the "professorial socialists" of the day, but there is little in the present work that justifies the association. There is hardly any other branch of economics that lends itself so readily to the conceits of those who hold that the financial operations of the Government should serve to bring about a more equal distribution of property. Prof. Adams gives no countenance to this doctrine, but he shows plainly enough how public borrowing does commonly affect the distribution of the proceeds of the national industry, and that it does not tend to a more equal distribution of wealth, but the contrary. More stress might have been laid on the opposition of the protected classes in the United States to the reduction of taxation, but the allusions made to this branch of the public-debt question imply that the author considers protectionism an obstacle to the adoption of sound principles of finance at the present time.

Prof. Adams finds that public debts have their origin in constitutionalism as distinguished from absolutism; that, in the beginning of debt-making, people were willing to lend money to the Government if it was more or less their Government, but not if it was entirely the King's Government. "The broad theory of constitutional liberty is, that the people have the right to govern themselves; but the historical fact is, that, in the attempt to realize this theory, the actual control of public affairs has fallen into the hands of those who possess property. It follows from this that when property-owners lend to the Government, they lend to a corporation controlled by themselves." This is quite true if we attach no other meaning to the words than the context implies. Intelligence really rules the world, and those who possess property usually possess intelligence, which, when applied to government, produces discipline, organization, continuity, method, and the use of credit, while the want of it yields revolution, anarchy, confiscation, and repudiation. It is not implied, and must not be inferred, that the control of government by the property-owning classes leads to the creation of public debts, but merely that this sort of control enables the Government to get money when money must be had.

The two main causes of modern public debts are classed by the author as Nationality and Socialism. We cannot consider these terms good substitutes for War and Public Works. Nationality is responsible for a very small part of the public debts of Europe, even of those which have been piled up since 1850. It was not nationality that set Russia against Turkey, and England and France against Russia, in 1854. It was not nationality that precipitated France against Austria, Mexico, Germany, Tunis, Madagascar, and China within recent years. None of England's wars in the present century have been, strictly speaking, wars of nationality. Socialism, as used by Prof. Adams, is the opposite of *laissez-faire;* but it is not an aid to clearness to say Socialism when you mean harbors and bridges, or railways and telegraphs. The controversy between Socialism and *laissez-faire* as abstractions is as barren as would be a controversy between medicine and surgery. The State can do some things better than individuals, while individuals can do other things better than the State. There is room for dispute as to what things can best be done by the one and what by the other, but all that can be affirmed abstractly is, that, since individualism is the natural order of things, the burden of proof is upon Socialism to show that State interference is more advantageous in any given case. The author's first duty to his reader is to expel abstractions as much as possible, and especially not to import them when they do not inhere. This is a duty which Prof. Adams has, for the most part, kept in view.

The only political effects of public borrowing worthy of notice are those of an international character, as where the citizens of one country lend money to the Government of another country. Here no political effects arise unless the borrowing Government fails to pay according to the terms of the contract. Then the question arises how far the Government of the lending country may or ought to interfere to secure the rights of its citizens. This is an important question, but it is of a diplomatic, not of a financial, nature. The European world may yet be set by the ears by reason of the debt of Egypt. England has undertaken to administer Egypt, and has asked leave of France and Germany to "scale" the debt of that country, and has received a negative answer. The debt of Mexico was made the pretext of the French invasion of that country, and might have been the cause of war between the United States and France. The policy of England in respect of the claims of her subjects against foreign Governments is that of *caveat emptor;* for, although she claims the right to interfere, she does not exercise it in any case whatsoever, for the reason that it would thus be possible for private citizens to involve the country in war by design, and for the further reason that the Government would thus become practically the underwriter of all foreign loans on the Stock Exchange.

The surface arguments by which national debts, once created, are defended as commercially advantageous, are easily exposed and brushed aside by Prof. Adams. Reduced to their simplest terms, these are arguments intended to show that it is wise to make a permanent provision for one portion of the community, and necessarily a small portion, at the expense of all the rest. Such arguments show "how easy it is for men to convince themselves that what proves to be of personal advantage must of necessity benefit the community at large." The existence of a national banking system dependent, as regards circulation, upon the permanence of a national debt, does not alter the fact that the debt itself is an evil to be got rid of, in an honest way, as soon as possible. It is not true that the debt creates social inequalities—these existed before the debt existed. It was because there were rich men in the country that it became possible to have a debt. But the debt, if permanent, will perpetuate inequalities by the operation of the taxing power. It will take from the mass in order to support the few. Interesting tables drawn from the last census are introduced by Prof. Adams, showing how and where the bonds of the United States are held. Excluding the national banks and foreign holders, the number of persons and corporations receiving interest from registered bonds in the year 1880 was 80,802. This table included $300,000,000 of bonds that have since been paid off. So the number of holders must have been considerably reduced, perhaps to 50,000. Of these holders, 25,613 held between $50 and $500 each, and 52,841 held less than $2,500 each. The New England States held 17 per cent. of the whole, the Middle States 67 per cent., the Western States 13 per cent., and the Southern States 3 per cent. The social effect of public interest-paying thus comes to have a geographical cast. There is a transfer of capital from the West and the South to the East. It is possible, however, to assign too much importance to this feature, and we

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think that Prof. Adams does so. In its geographical aspects, it is not the public debt that causes the transfer of money from one section of the country to another, but the possession of capital. It would go on just the same, and to the same extent, if there were no public debt at all.

WILSON'S CHINA.

China: A Study of its Civilization and Possibilities. By James Harrison Wilson. D. Appleton & Co.

DESPITE the multiplicity of books on China, there is always room for an unhackneyed view of the vast empire, put into print. Dr. S. Wells Williams was, perhaps, the last of old-fashioned scholars who could or would write an encyclopædic account of the country and people. We now look for and can tolerate only the specialist and expert. In two parts of the great field there are few laborers, notwithstanding the white promise of harvest. About the China of the dawn of history or before it, and the China to be—China touched by science—we want good books. Of the making of these there is scarcely a beginning.

With a distinct purpose in view, Gen. James Harrison Wilson went to the Middle Kingdom. While inquiring into Chinese civilization and possibilities, and learning these from men and books, he studied, from horseback and with an engineer's eye, the face of the country Then, as a practised railway manager, already familiar with the thorns and hard places in the seat of the presidency of a road, he looked at the obstacles, real, possible, and imaginary, to the introduction of traction by steam into the oldest of empires. He talked with the common people, studied their religion, prejudices, and superstitions, their houses and their graves, their fields, roads, and methods of trade and transport; and then interviewed mandarin and merchant. To any one familiar with Gen. Wilson's previous career, it goes without proof that our latest American traveller in China was well equipped for his task. Educated at West Point, a soldier during the whole of the civil war, an engineer and cavalry officer, a railroad builder and manager for twenty years, and well known recently as the President of the New York and New England Railroad Company, he set his eye on the only great country yet to be provided with railroads. His book is a commentary on the one text of progress in China.

Sailing from San Francisco October 19, 1885, after a visit to Japan and the run to Shanghai, he hurried forward to Tientsin. He had several encouraging interviews with Viceroy Li, and, at his request, made a midwinter journey of fifteen hundred miles on horseback through the three northeastern provinces of Chi-li, Ho-nan, and Shan-tung. A journey was made in central Japan, "the most beautiful country in the world"; and then a trip to Formosa, followed by a second visit to Tientsin. Between leaving and returning to New York, a year, lacking three days, elapsed.

In his twenty-one chapters, one of which is devoted to Japan, the author discusses his theme in the most practical manner. He touches upon the questions of population, education, government, foreign and missionary influence, and national history, only so far as they illustrate his one idea kept in view. He believes China need suffer from no fear of over-population, as the soil is able to support treble the present number of people. He notes and seizes, much more clearly than most outside visitors, the fact of China's long isolation. Surrounded only by pupil nations, and kept far away from equal or superior civilizations and their modifying influences by high mountains, cold steppes, malarious jungles, unnavigable rivers, or oceans vexed only by natural forces, the Middle Kingdom stood for monotonous centuries like an island in the midst of the ocean. Now the old conditions are changed. Steam has wrought more wonders than all the dragons. The ocean has become a pathway, steppes and defiles can be made into roads by ties and rails, and, instead of vassals and tributaries, China is touched on her borders by arrogant Europeans—Russians, French, British. Only three or four days distant is the "neighbor-disturbing" Dragon-fly Country, with sea-going ironclads and the finest infantry in Asia. With the prospect of a railway from St. Petersburg to Vladivostok, another from Calcutta through Burmah to the borders of Yun-nan, and a fleet of steel cruisers in Yedo Bay, the question of railroads in China touches the instinct of self-preservation, and interests the Chinese soldier even more than merchant or mandarin. The nerves of China are said to be more obtuse than an alligator's, but nowadays nations get new nervous systems by means of iron and electricity. In spite of popular opposition and the feng-shuey (wind-and-water superstition), Li and the progressives have persevered in their schemes of telegraphic connection of the frontiers with the capital and its seaport. About 5,000 miles of wire are now in operation. "Military necessity" has spurred on the Government thus to adopt one of the cheapest and easiest features of modern civilization. In this there is hope for the speedy entrance of the locomotive.

In carefully weighed words, Gen. Wilson states his belief that China is very nearly ready for railroads, that even the popular prejudices can be overcome by wit and silver, that private wealth can be secured for the purpose, and that the progressive statesmen will gradually impress their views on the conservatives and win them over. This he believes, despite his thorough consideration of the fact that the attitude of nearly all the civil officers towards the foreign appliances of civilization is that of stolid apathy. In a word, Gen. Wilson believes that progress is possible to China. If one feels disappointment at the author's grave, judicial, and cautious statements, and longs for warm and rosy views, he must remember how often the sanguine prophets have failed. One who loves fact more than fancy will thank Gen. Wilson that he has so clearly, soberly, and industriously given the reader such lavish materials on which to build a sound opinion.

In its literary mechanism the book is to be commended. The style is clear, straightforwad, with no attempt at rhetorical embellishment or originality of view, yet readable and pleasing. A good preface, analytical table of contents, index, and colored map, with print, paper, and binding, make this literary venture of a soldier and engineer a worthy inmate of the permanent library.

The Chief Periods of European History. Six Lectures read in the University of Oxford in Trinity Term, 1885, with an Essay on Greek Cities under Roman Rule. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 250.

THE special merit of this course of lectures is suggestiveness. We do not know that Mr. Freeman has anywhere given so good a key to the problems of European history. It is not, as he himself says, a key which will unlock all these problems. It is but one out of many possible divisions into periods. "Another man might divide on some principle altogether different; I might myself divide on some other principle in another course of lectures." However this may be, the principle of division here followed is peculiarly suggestive. It is "the main outlines of European history, as grouped round its central point, the Roman power." The heads of the chapters illustrate this: "Europe Before the Roman Power," "Rome the Head of Europe," "Rome and the New Nations," "The Divided Empire," "Survivals of Empire," and "The World Romeless."

But while the course is in its very nature full of instruction and suggestion, so that even these titles carry the reader right into the heart of the subject, we must say that the execution in detail is in great part perfunctory, to a degree very unusual with Mr. Freeman. The outline of the course has so much meaning that it is difficult to fill out this outline without a considerable amount of trite and indifferent matter which may fairly be called padding. He urges in the preface "that no one may be disappointed if he fails to find in this thin volume even a summary of all European history, much less a philosophical discussion of all European history." But, thin as it is, this volume of six lectures contains more than the necessary space for stating and elucidating his general outline. The essential points in this suggestive theme, of Rome in its relation to European history, even with all the illustration that is needed to give it fulness and clearness, occupy only a moderate proportion of these pages. We have never read any of Mr. Freeman's works in which his special fault of loading his pages with an excessive amount of detail, much of it of a recondite nature and much in a very allusive form, is so conspicuous as here. But then, we hasten to add that in none of his works will the reader meet with more, not merely of suggestiveness, but of bright and felicitous statement. After speaking (p. 45) of the historical relation of Gaul and Teuton to Rome in the building of civilization, he adds: "They who came as invaders only had to be dealt with as invaders and not as disciples. The Gaul who came before his time had his scourging at Sentinum. The Teuton who came before his time had his scourging at Aquæ Sextiæ and Vercellæ." Of Odoacer (p. 96): "The only difference between the revolution of 476 and a crowd of earlier revolutions was that Odowakar found that it suited his purpose to acknowledge the sovereignty of an absent sovereign rather than to reign in the name of a present puppet of his own creation." Of Theodoric (p. 97): "His rule was the best, as that of the Franks was about the worst, to be found in Roman and Teutonic Europe in his day. Still, fusion between Roman and Teuton was the very essence of Frankish rule; under the system of Theodoric no direct step towards fusion could be taken. It was the necessary result of his position that he gave Italy one generation of peace and prosperity such as has no fellow for ages on either side of it, but that, when he was gone, a fabric which had no foundation but his personal qualities broke down with a crash." Of Charlemagne (p. 108): "The truest view of the event of 800 is that the existing empire was split asunder, and that the western fragment, that which acknowledged the Frankish King as its Emperor, was in form enlarged by the addition of the territories of the Frankish King."

A line of thought which runs through the book, parallel with that of Rome, is that of the "Eternal Eastern Question." "In that abiding strife," he says (p. 5), "that Eternal Question, the men of the Eternal City, Scipio and Sulla, Trajan and Julian, played their part well indeed; but it was waged before them and after them as far back as the days of Agamemnon and Achilleus, as near to the present moment as the days of Codrington and Skobeleff." Few men have the gift of covering so much ground with one sentence as Mr. Freeman; and the sentence just quoted is the text for a large part of the volume. Another sentence in this connection deserves to be cited (p. 52): "Never, in truth, was the Eternal Ques-

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tion so near to its solution, so near to a solution which might have stifled the life of Europe for ever, as when Hannibal debated in his mind whether he should march straight from the field of Cannæ to the gates of Rome."

The closing essay, from the *Contemporary Review*, "Greek Cities under Roman Rule," is in Mr. Freeman's best style, and deserves to be carefully read by all who desire to understand the fundamental nature of the Roman provincial rule. To be sure, it covers only half the ground, and one wishes that Mr. Freeman would do for the Roman power in the West what he has here done for the Roman power in the East. The work was a wholly different one: "There Rome did not enslave or destroy, but created. The towns of the West looked forward, while the Greek commonwealths looked backward." But the legal relation was identical in the two cases; and Mr. Freeman's brilliant and graphic delineation in detail will afford, for the whole subject, the best possible commentary to Mr. Arnold's excellent account of the Roman provincial government, or to Mommsen's lately published volumes.

A Contribution to the Bibliography and Literature of Newport, R. I.: Comprising a list of Books published and printed in Newport, with Notes and Additions. By Charles E. Hammett, jr. Newport, R. I.: Hammett; Providence: Rider. 1887. 4to, pp. 185.

If every lawyer owes a debt to his profession which can only be paid off by contributing something to the elucidation of the law, still more ought every intelligent bookseller to feel bound to make some record of the literature with which he has to deal. Newport is fortunate in having in Mr. Hammett a bookseller who is at the same time author, collector, and publisher. His exhaustive list of Newport publications must reach over a thousand numbers, beginning as early as 1647 with a theological tract, others following it at irregular intervals until 1725, at which date (annually produced by its local press, and on subjects of local interest or by local authors) there began a growing literature, here duly chronicled in an alphabetical list and in a chronological index, each checking the other and correcting it.

Apart from the interest in religious controversy, in which liberal Rhode Island strove against orthodox New England, the Newport succession of eminent preachers from Hopkins to Channing supplied abundant material in their sermons, often controversial, sometimes historical, and always theological. Then, too, next after the Boston *News Letter* of 1704, and the Boston *Gazette* of 1719, came the printer of the Boston *Courant* of 1721, James Franklin, the elder brother of Benjamin, and in 1732 issued the *Rhode Island Gazette*. He died in 1735, and was succeeded in his business as printer and publisher by his widow Anne, who, aided by her daughter and her son, James, a native of Newport, managed it until he was of age, when he became the partner of his mother and conducted the business in his own name. He began printing about 1754, published the Newport *Mercury* in 1758 (still issued), and died in 1762, when his mother resumed the business, but in partnership with a son-in-law, under the name of Franklin & Hall, who were in turn succeeded by printers in regular order down to the present century. The imprint of the Franklins in Boston and in Newport has almost as much value in the eyes of the bibliographer as that of the more famous brother in Philadelphia. It might be worth while, as it would be easy, to collect from Mr. Hammett's pages a complete list of the Newport Franklin books and pamphlets. Practically the Franklin press, under their name and that of their successors, Southwick, Edes, and Farnsworth, served the needs of Newport for home productions, although many of Mr. Hammett's titles are of Newport books printed elsewhere. If James Franklin printed Penn's writings, it was more to supply the local Quaker demand than to contend for the control of that kind of theological literature. Morton's 'New England Memorial,' the earliest history of New England, first published in Cambridge in 1669, and in London in the same year, was honored with a third edition in Newport in 1772, the second edition being that printed in Boston in 1712; for this the local demand could not have been very great. One of the early London accounts of King Philip's War is that printed in 1676, and attributed by Increase Mather to "a Quaker in Rhode Island." Gorton and Coddington and John Clark and the early leaders and settlers of Newport printed their first works in London; nevertheless, the fourth New England press and the second American newspaper had their seat in that city.

It is curious to mark the medley of loyalty and patriotism in the years that ushered in and saw the Revolution. In 1775 the speech of George the Third and a poem on the conquest of Louisburg appeared from the same Newport press that printed Warren's oration and the address from the Continental Congress. 1776 brought Paine's 'Common Sense' and Hopkins's 'Address on Slavery.' In 1777 we find Blaskowitz's map of Newport and Chastellux's Travels, printed on board the French fleet, then in the harbor of Newport. (Mr. Hammett has made a special study of maps, and his bibliography is enriched by a very exhaustive account of all those that include Newport.) 1778 and the years of the English occupation of Newport produced Howe's loyal newspaper, Burgoyne's speeches, and other Tory publications. The same type served the invader that before and after the occupation was used by the patriotic native printer. 1783 produced Ædanus Burke's sharp attack on the Cincinnati as the foundation of an aristocracy, a charge which was best met by the modest gathering of its members in Newport only this present summer.

To err is human, but to be a bibliographer without error would indeed be superhuman. Some of the mistakes in Mr. Hammett's pages are no doubt the printer's, and he modestly disarms criticism by inviting it for both sins of omission and those of commission. His cataloguing Shipley's sermon under "Lord [Bishop ?]" is corrected by its being put properly under "Shipley." The reference to Trevett vs. Weeden ought to include a statement of the fact that the importance of that case is due to its being the earliest instance of an act of the Legislature overruled by the courts on the score of unconstitutionality; this, too, was before the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, and while Rhode Island was still living under its royal charter. The book is very attractive typographically, and reflects credit on the local press, and it is altogether a marked event in the literary history of Newport that its bibliography should be so well presented. Future editions may perhaps furnish still further evidence of its claim on public attention by corrections and additions that will enhance its value.

Photographic Printing Methods: a Practical Guide to the Professional and Amateur Worker. By the Rev. W. H. Burbank. Scovill Manufacturing Co.

The photographic world will be under no small obligation for this very convenient compendium of all that is most wanted as information and instruction, whether to the practised printer who sometimes forgets formulas, or to the beginner who has them all to learn. It comprises all the various methods of producing positive images from the negatives which are made in the camera—the ordinary silver print on albumenized and plain papers, iron and uranium, platinum, carbon, all the mechanical methods based on gelatine or asphaltum, and known as heliotype, collotype, albertype, etc., etc., or heliogravure, photogravure, etc., etc., and even the difficult processes of enamelling by photography and putting the positive image on the block for wood engravers; but we do not find the description of the Woodbury process, which is, of all, the most desirable for certain kinds of work, and the details given of the Ives and Meissenbach processes are hardly sufficient to enable a beginner to experiment on them.

But what is of the highest importance in all these processes, the peculiar quality of negative requisite for the method desired, is not touched on at all; and if a second edition of this manual should be called for, we recommend that this point be put in a most clear light. The negative that will give a satisfactory print on albumenized paper will often give most unsatisfactory results with any of the so-called matt prints, as platinotype, Eastman's bromide paper, plain paper, etc.; and this is one, and perhaps the chief, reason why the albumenized paper print still holds its popularity, though the most fugitive of all the silver processes. A negative for an albumenized paper print is only required to show all the detail in its shadows when held up to the light—every degree of gradation will appear in the print; while in the matt print all degrees below a certain depth of shadow will be lost in a uniform black. The negative for a matt print or any of the photogravures or heliogravures must, therefore, be made of a special character to avoid this difficulty—they must have as little deep shadow as is compatible with the subject, and the best results will be given by negatives which have only very small passages of perfect transparency, and as little as may be of high light, the greatest extent possible being of half tint, subdued lights, and illuminated shadows. A negative which, when held up in the direct sunlight, shows the most gradation and detail will generally give the best matt print, and if it is not intense in development, so much the better. Two or three specks of absolute transparency in the negative are all that is necessary in shadow, and a little more in high lights will give a matt print a beauty of effect which will leave no place for the glossy surface of the albumenized print.

The question of permanence is one of great importance in selecting a process, and here it is necessary to say that no silver process is to be considered absolutely permanent; in fact, only the ink-printed types are so. But of all the silver processes, the albumenized paper is the least to be trusted. The Eastman bromide process is fairly permanent, but will not resist bad air (sulphuretted hydrogen, etc.) or mineral acids. The platinotype, if thoroughly washed from its iron salts, will resist anything but aqua regia; the carbon and Woodbury prints, though perfectly permanent as regards fading, will sometimes crumble and leave the mount through decomposition of the gelatine which forms the vehicle of the image.

The index of this manual is badly arranged and perplexing, and some carelessness is noticeable in the proof-reading. For instance, on page 55, in the formula for sizing for platinum prints, we read, "aniline blue powered [*sic*], 10 to 20 drops." What is a drop of powered (powdered ?) aniline? And speaking of the platinotype print, which is the acme for amateurs, we may say that, in spite of all the directions as to development, which prescribe soaking for five seconds, we have always found that the best and most brilliant prints were got by printing sufficiently, and then drawing the print rapidly across the surface of

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the developing solution without allowing this to touch the back of the print. An under-printed proof must be left longer, but the object should be to keep the image as much on the surface of the paper as possible.

A Course of Elementary Practical Histology. By William Fearnley. Pp. xi, 363, 45 figs. Macmillan & Co. 1887.

THERE exists no work in any language which describes and figures the fine or histological structure of all the organs and tissues of the human body, nor is there any work which gives the methods especially applicable for the investigation of this subject. Following Kölliker, works which purport to be human histology give figures and descriptions of structures from man, fish, frog, rabbit, dog, or some other animal the name of which is sometimes not given. The inevitable impression upon the mind of the student is, that if he knows the structure of any tissue or organ in fish, frog, or other vertebrate, he knows the structure of the corresponding organ or part in man. That this is true in a very general sense is not denied, but no one knows more surely than the morphologist that there is a marked individuality in the histological as well as in the gross structure of the animals forming the great groups. The book or books which should bring out clearly the histological structure of one entire animal and describe the necessary methods of study, would be welcomed by the large and constantly increasing body of teachers and students of human and comparative anatomy who realize that exact knowledge of one animal in its entirety forms the best and safest standard of comparison. To all such the present work will be disappointing, for it is in line with the numerous guides that have preceded it, including directions for the study of objects from the yeast plant up to man. It has no definite aim, but is designed for medical students and others who care to study histology and can afford the necessary apparatus and material.

It is divided into two parts—1, the theory and use of the microscope, and the methods of histological study (pp. 1-207); and 2, headings followed by blank spaces, equal to six printed lines, for the definition of terms and the description of preparations (pp. 209-356). This second part contains the only new feature in the book. At the beginning of it the author directs the student that "he should fill up these spaces before commencing to study the preparations, using a good text-book," etc. After this process the average student would, no doubt, be able to see in his preparations all the structures described, although a histologist might not be able to make out a single one of them clearly. None but those who have trained their unaided eyes to see things as they are, can realize the amount of self-restraint required to see no more and no less than is actually present in the field of a microscope; and they must deprecate any method which does not distinctly and emphatically tend to cultivate self-restraint, self-reliance, and thoroughness.

The directions for the choice and use of a microscope are simple and usually good; but the discussion of the reason for the various processes and of the optics of the microscope is so inadequate that the student could hardly fail to be puzzled and discouraged. Some of the statements are not only inadequate, but ambiguous and incorrect. For example, it is stated that, "if a vulgar fraction having 1 for its numerator be made of the focal distance of the lens, we only require to put a 0 after the denominator to ascertain the magnifying power of the lens" (p. 8). The statement is inaccurate, however interpreted, and the difficulty of applying the rule, admitting its accuracy, will be apparent to any one who attempts to apply it to a lens whose focal distance in inches is represented by a number greater than unity, or a fraction whose numerator is greater than one. Although the author evidently intends to use the metric measures, the English and metric systems are badly mixed up in the description of the apparatus, materials, and processes. On one page the temperature is given in degrees Fahrenheit, and on another in degrees Centigrade. In one place lengths are expressed in centimetres, and in an other in inches; and sometimes the student is in the same sentence bade to take a certain number of ounces of one ingredient and a certain number of grammes of another.

In addition to the confusion and obscurity, the diction is too often commonplace, as when the student is instructed to "carefully remove the 'pluck' entire"; and in giving directions for obtaining material from the lower animals the common names are applied to the objects, no reference being made to the names of the homologous parts in man. There are also many repetitions, and very few cross-references. As the index and table of contents are both very meagre, the book is exceedingly difficult to use unless one is thoroughly familiar with the entire work. Thus, the student is told (p. 153) to "catch a rat." On a previous page very good directions are given for this, but as the word "rat" does not appear in either the index or table of contents, and no cross-reference is given, the student, unless he had previously read and remembered the directions, would probably conclude that he was expected to follow his own devices in performing this somewhat delicate operation. In short, no student could successfully pursue the study of histology by the guidance of this work alone, and the competent teacher would find it quite unnecessary, if not an actual hindrance, and inferior to the majority of those which have preceded it.

How to Make a Saint; or, The Process of Canonization in the Church of England. By the Prig. Henry Holt & Co. 1887.

To readers of "the Prig's" former books, it will be recommendation enough of this one to be told that in it his hand shows no loss of cunning. Even of him it would be too much to expect that he should not once nod in the course of a hundred pages; but, admitting more than one attack of drowsiness, it must be said that he is almost always amazingly alert and wicked. English High-Church vagaries have long been counted fair game for the satirist—as long ago as 'Pendennis' Thackeray gave us Mr. Smirke; but we doubt if there has been a more subtle and amusing drive at them. The little book opens with a fine touch: "'The Romanists have just beatified a number of English martyrs, and why shouldn't we do it too?' 'Mr. Maniple, those words of yours, "Why shouldn't we do it too?" may be said to have been the initial impulse of every movement, in a Catholic direction, taken by the Church of England. . . . We have already done everything else; so I also say of this, "Why shouldn't we do it too?"'" The choice of a nineteenth-century saint—gallantly left to a "Ladies' Committee"—in the person of Hannah More is also delicious. "The Prig's" Roman Catholic sympathies are more pronounced than in his 'Bede'—the citations from Jerome and Augustine, for example, in support of the worship of the Virgin, being quite lugged in, and serving better the purposes of controversy than of jesting; but it is something to get so much pure fun from a Roman Catholic writer, if such "the Prig" verily is. A satire is necessarily but partial truth, and we are content to let this one go as such without alluding to those noble qualities in the satirized which one of "the Prig's" good sense would be the first to admit. Nor would he deny, we think, that the Roman communion needs something more than facilities for saint-making; what Janet says of Buddhism, "Il a fait des saints, il n'a jamais pensé à créer des citoyens," is perilously near being applicable to Roman Catholicism.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Battershall, J. P. Food Adulteration and Its Detection. E. & F. N. Spon. $3.50.
Benjamin, S. G. W. Sea-Spray, or Facts and Fancies of a Yachtsman. Benjamin & Bell. 50 cents.
Brunetière, F. Études critiques sur l'histoire de la littérature française. 3e série. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Burroughs, J. Birds and Bees. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Claretie, J. Candidat. Paris: Dentu; Boston: Schoenhof.
Clarke, Mrs C. M. More True than Truthful: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Cluseret. Mémoires du Général Cluseret. 2e siège de Paris. 2 vols. Paris: J. Lévy; New York: Christern; Boston: Schoenhof.
Daudet, A. La Belle-Nivernaise. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
Daudet, A. Tartarin of Tarascon. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
De Foe, D. Robinson Crusoe. From the original 1719 edition. Thomas Whittaker.
Desbeaux, E. Mattie's Secret. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
Doncieux, G. Un Jésuite homme de lettres au XVIIe siècle. Le Père Bouhours. 8vo. Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof.
Dowd Smith, J. Luella. Wind Flowers. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
François, Louise von. Phosphorus Hollunder. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gelkie, A. The Teaching of Geography. Macmillan & Co. 60c.
Genung, Prof. J. F. Practical Elements of Rhetoric. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Grant, R. The Confessions of a Frivolous Girl. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Greater America: Hits and Hints. A. Lovell & Co.
Griffin, W. Twok: A Novel. Hamilton, Ont.: Griffin & Kidner.
Halse, G. Weeping Ferry: A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Hatch, Mrs. M. R. P. The Upland Mystery. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Wide Awake. Vol. W. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.75.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

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